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Authors: G. A. Auclair
W. H. Read

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A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF INDUSTRIAL LEADERSHIP

Volume Two

INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY CENTER
UNIVERSITY OF MONTREAL
with the collaboration of
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
McGILL UNIVERSITY

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Institut de Psychologie
Université de Montréal**

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William H. Read, Ph.D.

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Chapter V

The Management of People

In this chapter, a general model for the study of attitudes toward "The Management of People" is described. This is followed by an outline of each of the attitude dimensions included in this model, along with the statement of the research hypothesis for each. A description of the measurement techniques as well as the method of analysis employed is then given, followed by the presentation of the research results. The chapter is concluded with a discussion and summary of the research findings.

The Development of a Leadership Model

The successful achievement of organizational goals depends not only upon the acceptance of these goals by organization members but just as essentially upon the effective coordination of the human (as well as the physical) resources of the enterprise. The manager plays a central role in this coordination process, since it is his primary responsibility to see that a system of cooperative relationships is developed among individuals and groups in order to produce the goods and / or services of business organizations. The managerial function differs fundamentally from other non-managerial functions (even highly important ones) in that the manager must accomplish work through others rather than perform it himself. This means, of course, that he is held strictly accountable for work performed which is far beyond the scope of his own personal efforts. By the very definition of his role then, he must sacrifice a measure of autonomy or self-control over work assigned him, since no matter how capable he might be in personally performing difficult tasks within his

department, it is nevertheless essential that he allocate these tasks to others and trust that they will perform them successfully.

This loss of individualism or total personal control of the situation invariably causes some degree of anxiety and tension in the manager, since he must not only implicitly rely on the capabilities of those to whom he allocates responsibility, but he must also count upon something which is more tenuous and difficult to attain -- the dedication and desire in subordinates to get the job done according to the same standards of excellence which he would impose on himself were he actually performing the tasks alone. While for some managers in business this anxiety is not intense enough to significantly effect the way in which they relate to others in the work setting, among other managers, it is strong and impelling, requiring major adjustments in behaviour to enable them to cope with it, adjustments which inevitably tend to render the individual impervious to the needs of others, especially in terms of how these needs relate to the work situation.

While it is beyond the scope of this study to delve into the reasons why some individuals experience a great deal of anxiety, while others experience very little, in reaction to this felt loss of exclusive personal control in a situation in which one is held accountable, it is nevertheless worth considering a few of the more compelling factors, those which are, in our opinion, more pertinent to the study of cross-cultural comparisons. It is not difficult to imagine that for those

individuals that do experience a high degree of anxiety, one of the basic sources is a profound fear of disapproval from those in authority who have the responsibility for judging their efforts. For example, an individual reared within a culture which is basically authoritarian (such as would be the case, in our opinion, with the typical French Canadian manager much more so than with the typical English Canadian manager) tends to be conditioned to value obedience and respect for authority over initiative and independence of thought and action. He tends to look exclusively to authority figures for reward and approval and, as a result, he naturally attempts to rigidly fulfill his conception of their expectations above all other considerations, and expects others to do likewise.

As he matures within this culture, he tends to progressively personalize or internalize these expectations within the authority structure, profoundly believing that the holder of a position of responsibility must automatically be a highly worthy, quasi-omnipotent person, one who must, by the very nature of his position, be respected and obeyed at all costs. When this individual assumes a managerial position in the industrial hierarchy, this tendency to personalize his position, and to incorporate the authority it carries into his own make-up, acts to heighten and magnify his fear that he may not "measure up", and to fail to live up to the standard set for him by his superiors represents to him the spectre of a personal defeat, engendering deep feelings of personal devaluation or loss of self-esteem.

When this pervasive fear of disapproval is compounded with the feeling of discomfort and uncertainty he would tend to experience in a situation such as a modern corporation, where snap decisions must often be preferred to cautious and careful ones and where authority tends to be loosely and pragmatically applied, his sense of threat is further increased. Indeed, the demands placed upon an individual in a managerial function for initiative and the ability to see issues in "shades of grey" rather than in absolute "black or white" terms, is simply not fostered in an authoritarian climate or culture, and risks creating a situation which he finds most difficult to cope with. The stress experienced in this kind of situation elicits in him an "instinct for survival" reaction, resulting in a strong "turning inward". In such a menacing situation, the natural tendency is to rely on oneself, on one's own resources, rather than to rely on the resources and / or intentions of others. Such a manager will not be inclined to get other people personally involved in work, since to his way of thinking he cannot, so to speak, put his "life" in the hands of others. Nor can he readily see in his tension-ridden state of mind, the necessity for doing so, not having any realization of the needs of others to learn, develop and gradually become as much as he is, a part of the mission for which he is responsible.

In short, the more anxious the manager, the more self-preoccupied and inner-directed he likely becomes, tending to trust only his own efforts and to mistrust the efforts of others. In effect, the individual who is inner-directed, that is, preoccupied with his own problem of alle-

viating a strong feeling of threat, simply does not have the mental set conducive to sensitivity and understanding of the needs and feelings of other people in relation to their jobs. Indeed, he is not able to see "beyond his nose" with respect to the "triangle" which includes himself, other people, and the tasks to be performed. Other people are seen by him to be in effect tools used to achieve his purposes. It should be emphasized here that this inner-directed, basically mistrusting approach to people is an unintentional one, being generated by a combination of cultural and situational forces, and not by any perversity in human nature.

It is obvious that the less the anxiety, the more psychologically free is the individual -- free to be "other-directed" to the extent that he is able to integrate task achievement with the needs of other people. Indeed the less anxious the individual, the greater the opportunity to become aware of, and sensitive to, the motivational forces of other people and how these strivings relate to the work situation. Consequently, he is more likely to develop a realistic theory of human behaviour in the workplace, one that maximally takes into account the needs of others as well as his own, in a common endeavor to accomplish the requirements of the job. In contrast, the highly anxious manager, being relatively blind to the needs of others, is unlikely to develop a frame of reference toward the management of people which is based on a realistic understanding of their behaviour. At any rate, the management philosophies of these two types of individuals will undoubtedly be different, a point to be

brought out later in this chapter in discussing the leadership model proposed in this study.

The importance of developing a leadership style which closely links together the aspirations of people within a team system at work, cannot be over-emphasized. Though the manager's function is performed within the authority structure of the enterprise, he cannot in today's business solely rely upon this structure to legislate or command others to strive toward the achievement of organizational goals. No matter how broad the scope of his formal power, he must in the long run rely on another person's intrinsic satisfaction in getting the job done if he is to consistently achieve these objectives. In fact one of the most important responsibilities he has is precisely to provide the inspiration which will instill this motivation to create the climate which will foster in others strong feelings of dedication to the task at hand.

The creation of this kind of work climate has always been an important feature of effective management, but in today's complex, fast-paced business technology, it is becoming an essential. One hears a good deal today about the progressive erosion of the manager's function due to the introduction of automation and computerization which it is said takes over a part of this function by programming much of the decision-making in an enterprise. The assertion that managerial roles are in fact changing during this current period of rapid

technological advance is a truism. Yet, it is likely that the demand placed upon the manager for high skill in motivating people is ever greater today for the very reason that automation and systemation increase the pace of the work flow and require the tight integration of the work of individuals with that of other individuals. His decisions on problems of motivation and human relations in the workplace, decisions which could in previous eras be delayed or postponed in a slower-paced, multi-stage production system, must frequently now be made quickly and decisively to avoid costly set-backs resulting from work errors, absenteeism and turnover caused by low morale and disgruntlement in the office or factory. This requires much more than an intuitive "play it by ear" approach to problems of human behaviour. The manager must understand, predict and control the behaviour of people, not only of individuals, but of groups. Nor can this control of behaviour be achieved any longer with the use of threat or discharge, as previously suggested. In the last decade or so, the educational and skill level of all but a few workers has been elevated to the point where employees are demanding, and are able to find, much more in work than the pay check. They increasingly seek and expect varied and challenging work, and the marked widening of opportunities to find it has to a large extent freed them from the fear of punitive action by any organization.

Basically then, the most crucial skills which a successful manager must possess involve the judicious handling of these emotional

and motivational dimensions of interpersonal relations in an organization, and there is no evidence whatsoever that these core skills will be required any less in the future than they are now. Such skills are many and complex, but they include above all a profound sensitivity to the needs and expectations of other people in the workplace, the ability to diagnose human relation problems long before they reach unmanageable proportions, and the ability to communicate with others (both as a recipient and as a conveyor of ideas and feelings). These skills must be developed and used to create the kind of climate within which subordinates can find meaningful and significant relationships between their own efforts and the aims of the enterprise.

The basic precondition for the development of these prime, core skills of the manager is a set of positive attitudes toward others in the workplace. The manager must possess confidence that those who work with him in all cooperative endeavors within the enterprise are capable of "coming through" both in the normal conduct of organizational tasks, and also in unforeseen crises and emergencies. But even more crucial is an attitude of basic trust that others will want to perform effectively. He must have high expectations that under reasonable conditions and with few exceptions, people basically want to commit themselves to organizational purposes, and that (unless they are prevented from doing so) they will in fact do their best to fulfill them. This is not a naive assumption, it is one which is basic to good management for two reasons. First, unless the manager basically trusts others, he has no recourse but to

use coercion and the prerogatives of his status in the hierarchy, since this is the only alternative available to one who does not believe that cooperation will be given voluntarily. Secondly, an attitude of mistrust is rather quickly detected by others, and it is contagious, negatively affecting the manager's relations with all those he must deal with in the work situation. Their resulting mistrust of him acts back on and further amplifies the manager's feelings of mistrust and so on, creating a vicious circle which can reduce communication between himself and others, and seriously reduce work performance. If familiarity breeds contempt, mistrust inevitably breeds further mistrust.

Another overriding condition for effective management of people in an organization is a flexible and open-minded frame of reference on the part of the manager toward problems and issues involving others in the work environment. For the simple reason that problems involving people (as well as tasks and processes) are in a constant state of change in business enterprises, effective managerial performance can be seriously hampered by the adoption of rigid or preconceived notions of human nature, especially if these notions do not correspond to current knowledge of work motivation. As previously indicated, this can only be accomplished to the extent that the individual has not personalized his function so much so that the fear of not living up to the demands placed upon him by his supervisors "freezes" his natural capacity to empathize with others, thereby reducing his ability to go beyond superficial or simple explanations of human behaviour in any given situation, to go

beyond, for example, the simple notion that people are lazy by nature on the basis of observing in a given work situation that people are not performing as well as they should be. In short, the truly creative and successful integration of tasks and people demands a basic frame of reference which incorporates a healthy respect for the innovative, an open-minded, basically positive attitude toward others, and a willingness to relate to one's subordinates in an open, business-like way, yet without constantly resorting to the rights and prerogatives of one's managerial position. It was with these considerations in mind that the researchers approached the assessment of the management dimension of this study. It was felt that any systematic working model of the management process should incorporate some measure of an individual's management philosophy based on his understanding of people and his perception of his role as a representative of authority within the hierarchy. The first component of the model thus incorporates two attitude dimensions: "Interpersonal Premises" and "Status Needs" which are outlined later in the chapter.

The second component of the model deals with the two related and somewhat interdependent aspects of the management function -- production and people. Since it is the manager's responsibility to get the job done through people, the leader's task is an essentially dual one, consisting of the achievement of goals defined by the accomplishment of specific tasks through the effective utilization of human resources. It is obvious that the manner in which the individual reacts to these two dimensions of work plays a preponderant role in determining the leadership climate that he will establish. The important point is how much concern he manifests for the achievement

of tasks, and how much consideration he shows for others in this work setting, in short, how much personal organizational involvement he has.

It might be well to point out that the leadership climate is a function of these two dimensions, not only in industry, but in virtually any situation in which individuals are organized into groups to achieve a purpose or set of objectives. Students of group dynamics have observed on repeated occasions that even in small, ad hoc groups in a laboratory setting, two dominant types of social roles emerge very shortly after the formation of these groups, the one directed toward, and primarily concerned with, the attainment of objectives, the other centered around the development of friendship, harmony and satisfaction among group members (Bales, 1955). In informal groups these two roles are frequently performed by two different members of the group. On occasion (when a particular member is adept at meeting both of these demands), one person fulfills both roles and becomes in time, recognized as the group leader. In other research studies, chiefly among U.S. military personnel, (Shartle, 1956), essentially the same two dimensions of the formal leader's role was delineated. In this case, the task aspect was labelled "initiating structure" and referred to all of the activities of the leader related to the attainment of group objectives, while the people or inter-personal aspect was labelled "consideration", referring to the leader's actions directed toward concern for the needs and feelings of group members.

As described by Blake & Mouton (1964), the manner in which an

individual reacts to these two fundamental aspects of the management process can have a considerable impact on both the objective, and the people involved, in the manner of a circular feedback process. Obviously, exclusive concern by the manager for task achievement can lead directly to the perception among group members that they are being used exploitatively, and that they do not count as people in the rush to meet production standards. This can, and frequently does, result in such frustration and apathy among team members that the level of production itself may drop appreciably, thus creating further and further lowering of morale. Conversely, exclusive concern for people to the neglect of task achievement can lead to such experiences of failure on the part of group members that morale may drop significantly, despite the good intentions of the manager to build it by being a "nice guy". Many managers, firmly convinced that both high task achievement and high morale cannot both be attained in the workplace, attempt to optimize the two. Seeing these two functions as essentially opposed to one another, and believing that a gain in productivity will automatically mean some loss of morale and satisfaction, they adopt a middle-of-the-road position, settling, in effect, for moderate and acceptable levels of each. The highly successful manager on the other hand, very likely is able to integrate these two functions so that the achievement of assigned tasks enhances job satisfaction and positive feelings among group members, and vice versa. In short, he holds the view that the maximization of satisfaction and of productivity, though difficult to attain, is nevertheless often possible. It can be said that this manager has achieved a maximum degree of personal organizational involvement.

Every manager must deal with these two aspects of the leadership process and how he views and reacts to each will have considerable impact on the work climate of his unit. It is important to note that there are many reasons why an individual would show consideration or lack of consideration for others in the work setting. One obvious reason could be a basic interest or lack of interest in people. Another could certainly be, as we have seen, his degree of understanding of human beings. The same would be true for an individual's concern for task achievement. Again, one obvious reason could be the inherent satisfaction he derives from accomplishing things, his intensive interest in meeting the production challenge that he has been given. Another reason could simply be, as we have previously suggested in the beginning of the chapter, his strong desire to avoid the unpleasantness of being held accountable for a task which he or his work group is unable to complete, whether he is basically interested in the task itself or not. Whatever the reason, the fact remains that the leadership climate is created by the consideration he shows for people and by his concern for the production factors in his unit.

The probability that a lack of consideration for people is due to a manager's basic disinterest in human beings is, in our view, a very slim one. The normal person does not wish to be inconsiderate of others. He does not intentionally frustrate the needs of, or hurt the feelings of, others. The individual who tends to be basically indifferent to others does not gravitate toward managerial positions for the

simple reason that he knows he would have to deal intensively with people in such functions. A manager's lack of consideration for people, therefore, is much more likely to be due to his lack of understanding or misinterpretation of their behaviour.

The possibility that the manager's over-emphasis on task achievement leads to a basically inconsiderate approach to people is a real one, but here also, it is extremely unlikely that this lack of consideration stems from his enthusiasm for work generated by the task itself, for in such circumstances, enthusiasm is contagious and draws the individual outward toward others. Indeed, the individual who derives a great deal of satisfaction from the work itself in which he is deeply involved, is basically a secure person. Certainly his job does not tend to make him insecure, otherwise he would not derive such satisfaction. It must therefore contribute in some way to his personal sense of security. A secure person naturally tends to share the happiness he experiences from the activities of his job with those around him rather than to mistrust and protect himself from those he must rely on. It is in this sense that enthusiasm is contagious. Thus, lack of consideration due to over-emphasis on task achievement more likely flows from the manager's personalization of his authority, his felt need to protect it at all costs, and from the fear of disapproval from those in higher authority, as described in the beginning of this chapter.

To a very large extent then, the manager's view of these two functions and the relationship between them, as well as the emphasis each

should receive, is determined primarily by his own personal frame of reference about his role in his relationship to people in the workplace -- in short, his own perception of his managerial role. This perception is, in effect, a condensation of his experiences in dealing with people inside as well as outside the workplace, the degree to which he has been exposed (early in life) to the pressures and stresses of situations requiring initiative and self-determination, fostering an active rather than a passive response to challenges. It is also shaped by the deeply-rooted attitudes toward others and toward his role of authority which have been passed on to him by his society or culture. Thus fundamentally, the reactions of a manager to the two important dimensions of the leadership process, the accomplishment of tasks and the needs of people, the second component of our model, are largely determined by the individuals' personal management philosophy or role perception, the first component of our model. The two attitude dimensions that form this second component, "Task Orientation" and "Consideration of Others" are outlined later in this chapter.

If the manager's role perception (the first component), determines his conceptualization of the task-person relationship (the second component), this conceptualization or strategy in turn, engenders the leadership style he will generally employ as a manager, that is, the kind of superior-subordinate relationships that he will usually have with regard to the more important administrative functions of his position, such as decision-making and supervisory control. For example, the manager who sees high productive output to be the exclusive measure of a manager's value to the enterprise does so because, as we have previously suggested, he has highly

personalized his function and highly identified with the authority aspect of his role due to underlying feelings of insecurity engendered by the authoritarian climate within which he was reared. As a result, he will likely guard most jealously his prerogative to make operating decisions and will consider employee participation in decision-making to be a waste of time. We have also seen that this individual being "inner-directed" will tend to lack confidence in other people's ability or willingness to perform in a manner that will "guarantee" his success. Consequently he will likely supervise others closely and generally be unaware that his interpretation of people's motives might not be correct, nor will he be conscious of the negative impact that such a style is likely to have on most people. The style of management that a manager adopts for each of the important administrative functions of his job constitutes the third and final component of the leadership model developed for use in this study. The two administrative functions utilized for the study of this third component are: "Participation in Decision-Making" and "Supervisory Control", both of which are also discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

The dynamics of this model are shown in Figure 1, which illustrates the manner in which these three basic components are interrelated. The reader is reminded at this time that the model presented in Figure 1 does not incorporate all of the salient dimensions that should be included in a cross-cultural study of the leadership process. A fourth component will be added to this basic framework after a thorough discussion of the attitude dimensions included in this study and a review of our results.

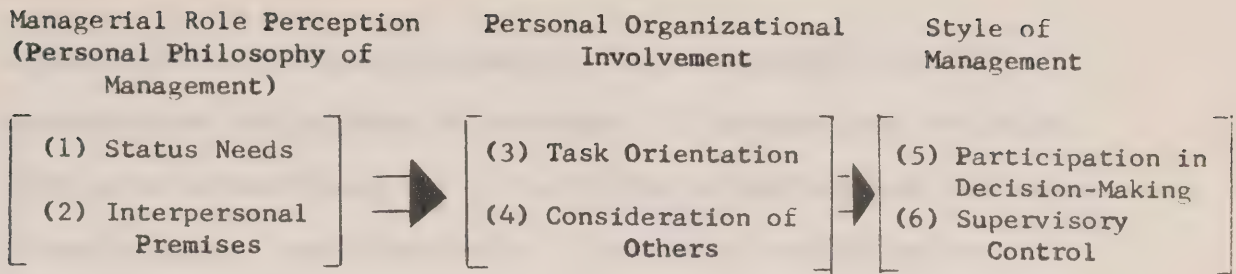


Figure 1: Schematic Representation of the Leadership Model showing the Three Interrelated Components.

The relationship between these three components is seen by the researchers as basically a causal chain. That is, the manager's perception of his role in relation to others in the workplace, (the set of values and attitudes which form his basic predisposition toward people), very largely determines his degree of personal organizational involvement in the tasks and with those individuals who assist him in the accomplishments of these tasks. This view in turn predisposes him toward the kind of management practices he implicitly feels must be used to accomplish tasks through people. Though certainly incomplete in its conceptualization due to the inevitable limitations of time and budget for this research project, this model was seen by the researchers as a useful way of viewing the leadership process in industry, and a convenient framework for analyzing and interpreting cross-cultural leadership patterns, the major purpose of this study.

As was previously suggested (on page 360), it was felt that major differences would be found between the two ethnic groups on the six attitude dimensions incorporated in this model. Certainly, the findings of research studies which have been done provide strong

evidence that the cultural climate of French Canadians does differ markedly from that of English Canadians. It appears that the major difference between these two cultures lies in the realm of reactions to and attitudes toward authority. The French Canadian culture is essentially authoritarian and traditionalistic in nature, while English Canadian social structures tend strongly toward egalitarianism, (Trudeau, 1956, Falardeau, 1953, and Naegele, 1961).

It has also been shown that this difference expresses itself rather clearly in the workplace. As shown by the studies of Garigue (1963) and Rioux (1956), members of the French Canadian group bring to the work setting a profound respect for authority, and their relations with others in the workplace, both in the role of superiors and subordinates, are colored by this value. In fact, the whole network of familial relations tends to be "psychologically" transferred by them from home to work, and provide their major frame of reference for interacting with others (Taylor, 1961). Faucher, (1960) has similarly described the French Canadian propensity for dealing with others in the workplace on the basis of social status rather than on business terms. In contrast, the English Canadian milieu, having its child-rearing practices based strongly on preparing the individual for a career in some aspect of commercial life (Trudeau, 1956), is characterized by a strong emphasis on the value of early independence from parental control, and in virtually all its institutions, tends to de-emphasize authority and status relationships in favour of fostering initiative and freedom

in its members. The individual learns early in life the value of a group-centered approach to tasks and projects rather than reliance on detailed directives from the formal leader. In contrast to the French Canadian, then, the English Canadian is much less likely to value the notion of authority as being omnipotent and much less likely to look upon strict or blind obedience to authority figures as a worthwhile personal characteristic to develop.

Taking into account the fact that the French Canadian culture is essentially authority-centered, and also the fact that French Canadian society is in the relatively early stages of industrialization, it would certainly not be difficult to imagine that the French Canadian manager would experience a profound sense of insecurity in dealing with others within a corporate structure, and as discussed previously, possess a perspective and understanding of the behaviour of other people in this work setting which would differ widely from that of his English Canadian colleague. In short, the French Canadian manager would likely rely strongly on his status and authority in order to meet the objectives of his unit, not basically trusting others to get the job done, while the English Canadian manager, believing that others are interested and challenged by tasks, would emphasize his authority much less.

According to the dynamics of the leadership model outlined above, this view on the part of the French Canadian would lead him to an outlook toward tasks and people and the relationship between them

which would differ fundamentally from that of the English Canadian. Though quite possibly less basically task-oriented than his English Canadian colleague, the French Canadian manager would very likely experience strong anxiety and a sense of urgency to get the job done as perfectly as possible, even at the expense of showing concern and consideration for people. It would follow then that in terms of management style, the two groups would again differ, with the French Canadian manager, for reasons already outlined previously, supervising others more closely, and exercising his full prerogative in making decisions himself, rather than in sharing them with others.

Though there have been few inter-cultural studies of leadership concepts and practices per se, recent research conducted by the Industrial Psychology Center at the University of Montreal has indicated that a central theme relative to the differences between the two groups is the marked dichotomy between the theory and practice of managing people at work, and the relative integration of the two among English Canadians (Beausoleil, 1961, Gagné, 1962). It was indicated in these studies that while French Canadians professed a general belief in good human relations in the workplace and were in principle very strongly "person oriented", their actual relations with subordinates tended to be clouded by a measure of mistrust, and in specific work situations they tended to take less into account than did their English Canadian colleagues the needs of subordinates. It would appear that English Canadian managers have integrated to a greater extent concern for task

achievement with the psychological needs of subordinates. It should be stressed here that these studies were conducted in one small firm, and involved only a limited sample of forty-two individuals, of whom sixteen were French-speaking, so that the results could hardly be considered conclusive.

Thus, ways in which the two groups adapt behaviorally in interaction with authority, and their personal ideology regarding the notion of authority especially in terms of the superior-subordinate relationship should be quite different. Consequently, the leadership climate created by the French Canadian manager should be at variance with the climate created by the English Canadian manager. Certainly one would expect them to be highly dissimilar.

Before discussing the "Measurement Techniques Employed" and the "Research Results" sections of this chapter, a discussion of these six attitude areas in terms of their significance to our study, and how the two ethnic groups can be expected to differ in each, along with a presentation of the statements included in these attitude dimensions are in order.

(1) Status Needs

The first dimension of Component I refers to the degree to which the individual uses and protects the authority and prestige of his management role in dealing with subordinates. (Statements 12, 15,

20, 26, 30, 38, 40, 43, 48 and 71).¹

Authority still could be described as the most salient type of relationship in a business organization, and its definition -- the right to command, even today describes fairly accurately (though very incompletely), the essence of management. The managerial role can thus be viewed in general terms as a set of duties, rights and obligations which the holder of this kind of position is expected to fulfill. The notion of "rights" in this broad definition is an interesting one, and is often overlooked by those attempting to understand the practice of management. It is the use of rights, and particularly the prestige and status which goes with them, that this dimension is concerned with.

While status, usually in the form of various symbols, is admittedly a part of the reward system of an organization, and as such serves as an incentive, particularly for the upwardly-mobile, its primary purpose is to define relationships between people, and to identify those who have decision-making authority, and who are to be held responsible for certain decisions. Thus, uncertainty and confusion are avoided in the organization, and people's efforts coordinated more effectively than would be the case in a situation in which no status differential existed. Yet, paradoxically, the more status is emphasized, and the more inequality of status among organizational members is stressed and enforced, the greater

¹ The statements numbered as indicated were those which were selected for inclusion in this particular attitude dimension, and are shown in Appendix Q, the bottom of page 13 to page 17, up to Questionnaire 5A.

the disruption of relationships among people in the enterprise. This is because status was never meant to be a privilege of absolute power over subordinates, nor a symbol of recognition of omniscience over others.

To the extent that a manager's status is used as a form of control over subordinates rather than as a source of influence to support his team's work efforts, to that extent, the manager loses the respect of his men. Indeed this respect and confidence in the leader can only be won through his personal ability to meet his subordinates' own needs for self-realization and self-respect in their work activities. It cannot be imposed on others by the authority level of his position.

The status and prestige of a manager's position is an organizational reality, it must be made visible to others, and it must form an intrinsic part of any manager's perception of his role in his relationships with others in the workplace. Yet members of the management force at all levels vary widely in the degree to which it enters into and dominates their relationships with others, particularly subordinates, in the enterprise. To some, status is a basically unhealthy form of human relationships and should be strongly de-emphasized. To others, it is a necessary, but not central, aspect of one's role as a manager, to be used lightly and only when necessary. To still others, it literally defines their relationships with members of their work team, and as such must be judiciously guarded and preserved.

The researchers considered this dimension of the manager's perception of his role to be most relevant to the study of management attitudes, particularly within the context of research on biculturalism. It was considered probable that French Canadians, much more than English Canadians, would emphasize the status dimension of their managerial role, not only because of the less egalitarian, more authority-centered nature of French Canadian culture, but also because of the likelihood that French Canadian managers, being less identified with the economic mission of business, and therefore less comfortable and far less secure in a position of leadership within it, would rely rather heavily on the authority of his position to coordinate the efforts of his subordinates. The fact that he would concomitantly tend to believe that subordinates are not basically interested in work nor sufficiently reliable individuals (as we shall see later) only serves to intensify his reliance on the power vested in him in dealing with others. The English Canadian, being more at ease in his managerial role, might lean more toward "levelling" with subordinates, and be less concerned with the salience and visibility of his authority.

The ten statements included in this attitude measure covered several aspects of status. Statements 12, 30 and 71 deal with the superior's perception of his omnipotence and the unimpeachable nature of his authority, and person, while Statements 15 and 40 reflect his sensitivity to this authority and his defensive reaction to any deviation

from respect for, or obedience to it, on the part of subordinates. His tendency to take suppressive action to guard his status is expressed in Statement 26. In Statements 20, 38, 43 and 48, the theme reflected is the protection of the image of infallibility projected by the superior, by withholding information concerning errors, misjudgments or lack of specific knowledge.

(2) Interpersonal Premises

The second dimension of Component I refers to the manager's attitude toward the motives and/or personal characteristics of other people in the workplace. (See questionnaire 3, pages 13 to 15 for statements 11, 19, 24, 29, 34, 37, 39, 47, 51, 55 and 56, and questionnaire 5a, page 18, for statement 17, appendix Q).

Underlying any action or decision made by the manager involving personnel in the workplace are assumptions about human nature and human motivation — assumptions which, taken together, make up the basic management philosophy of the individual. Though there is no doubt that these assumptions vary widely in their form among management people, they may be realistically classified into two broad types, the one basically positive and optimistic in nature, the other essentially negative and pessimistic. This classification has been recently presented by a leading writer in the field of management (Mc Gregor, 1960). The more negative set of assumptions he classifies as "Theory X", which he states contain the following three basic assumptions about human beings:

(1) "The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can."

(2) "Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives."

(3) "The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all."

According to the above writer, these assumptions do not necessarily reflect only the personal views of a few cynical individuals in management positions, but rather form the basis of much of management policies and practices in Canadian and American industry today, and are in fact guidelines very commonly used in both blue and white-collar business settings for the management of people. The author explicitly states, however, that this set of assumptions is basically unrealistic and outmoded, and simply does not square with what social science has discovered about the nature of human motivation. Theory X may then be seen as a set of interpersonal premises which has as its underlying theme a mistrust of the motives which people have toward work and their allegiance to organizational goals. He counters the assumptions of Theory X with a new, more positive set which he claims reflects more faithfully what we presently know about human nature in relation to work. These principles, which he feels should be adopted as a new, more dynamic philosophy of management, he refers to as "Theory Y", listed below.

(1) "The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest."

(2) "External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed."

(3) "Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement."

(4) "The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility."

(5) "The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population."

(6) "Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized."

It is the researchers' view that the assumptions contained in Theory X are in fact an intrinsic part of the philosophy of many managers in the industrial setting, and are not only archaic but dysfunctional for successful management in the modern corporation. To view the relatively well-trained, well-educated industrial worker today as one who is satisfied with a simple exchange involving his acceptance of external direction and control for a set of monetary rewards simply cannot result in the development of the kind of integrated effort and dedication that is needed in a sophisticated, fast-paced industrial technology. Theory Y then can be seen as an attitude of basic trust that people are interested in work and will strive to accomplish any goals. A basic philosophy about the personal characteristics, motives

and intentions of people, whether it is positive, negative or neutral in nature, does form, along with his views of the status of his authority, an important part of any manager's perception of his role in dealing with members of his work group (as well as others) in his unit or department, and therefore shapes his orientation toward people in relation to production. It was felt that the two ethnic groups would differ in the kinds of Interpersonal Premises they bring to the workplace. More specifically, it was felt that French Canadian managers, themselves less intrinsically motivated than are their English Canadian counterparts within the corporate setting (see Chapter IV), would show less trust in the motivation or desire of subordinates to perform effectively in their jobs. In addition, the state of insecurity in which they find themselves is such that they will (due to their strong fear of disapproval) even question the loyalty of their subordinates to them when something goes wrong.

Of the twelve statements used to tap this dimension, six reflect the manager's basic trust or mistrust in other people in terms of their intrinsic interest in industrial work and the achievement of organizational goals (statements 19, 24, 29, 37, 39 and 56); of these six, three, Statements 19, 24 and 37 express the view that financial remuneration is the dominant interest of subordinates, rather than an interest in the job itself, while two others, Statements 39 and 56 are direct reflections of the negative assumptions about people

contained in "Theory X" outlined previously. Three other statements (11, 51 and 55) are concerned with the loyalty subordinates have to an industrial organization, as reflected in their attitude of acceptance or rejection of the superior's role within the work group. Statement 47 reflects the tendency to relate good performance to good or loyal intent, and Statements 34 and 17 express a manager's general level of trust or mistrust in others.

(3) Task Orientation

The first dimension of Component II refers to the degree to which task achievement or performance in the work setting is an important consideration on the part of the manager in his direction of subordinates' efforts (statements 21, 31, 41 and 49 of questionnaire 3, statements 57, 58, 61, 65, 67, 70, 73, 76 and 79 of questionnaire 4, and statement 14 of questionnaire 5a).

In the past few decades, it has become increasingly recognized that effective management involves not one but many concerns and objectives, and that the proper utilization of an organization's human, financial and physical resources requires the manager to focus not only upon the immediate goal of weekly or monthly production, but also upon the needs and interests of people involved in the production process. It is certainly true, however, that for many managers the central and predominant focus of activity in their departments is seen as (and in fact is) productive output. Human resources are viewed as means to this

end, and such managers sincerely believe that, without this heavy emphasis on the tasks to be performed and the goals to be achieved, both the organization and the employees would suffer. Indeed, the very pragmatic and "hard-nosed" climate of many of the more competitive business organizations in our society tend, however inadvertently, to foster a general attitude that productive output is not just the most important goal of business, but the only one. "Produce or perish" is, for many managers the creed of business, and they are of the sincere belief that all-out efforts toward productive output benefits all, including employees. In such a case, the manager sees his role as that of a vigilant monitor of production effort in his department, seeing to it that production standards are maintained and encouraging personnel to work toward them.

For some managers, however, even this central focus on productive effort is not enough. They view their role as one involving exclusive, rather than predominant, concern for productive output, and firmly believe that they must "push" as well as lead others to fulfill the goals of their unit or department. We have already pointed out that the underlying assumption that guides the actions of those who pressure and drive their subordinates toward task achievement is that direction and control, externally imposed on them, are necessary because, it is believed, people inherently dislike work and are not at all interested in or identified with the organization's goals and, therefore, must be

pushed. These managers see the organization's manpower as being divided between those who lead and those who are "unwillingly" led by more responsible people with vested authority — managers. There are, in short, many gradations of task orientation among the managers of an enterprise, ranging from low to high concern for task accomplishment, and to the extreme just described — those whose philosophy dictates the necessity for pressure tactics and the subordination of individual welfare and needs.

The Task Orientation dimension was considered an important one in the comparison of the conception the two groups held toward management practices. In terms of the dynamics of the leadership model outlined previously, one would expect French Canadian managers, being presumably more status conscious and much less trusting of the dedication of subordinates to work objectives than their English Canadian counterparts, to emphasize strongly productive output. In fact, they could be expected to exert pressure on subordinates to attain this objective, while the English Canadian manager, though clearly concerned about task achievement, would be more likely to encourage and stimulate, rather than to drive subordinates. In view of this, it was predicted that French Canadians would show more overall concern which would go to the extreme of accomplishing the task at the expense of the needs of others.

The fourteen statements used to assess the Task Orientation

dimension can be divided into several groupings. Statements 61, 76, 79 and 21 reflect a specific type of concern for production. They refer to the push aspect of motivation of subordinates toward task accomplishment in the sense that there is a strong "pressure to produce" connotation in each of them. In contrast, Statements 73, 65 and 57 indicate a different concern for task achievement. Being more encouraging and supportive, though demanding, in tone, they reflect the "pull" notion of employee motivation, with the superior stimulating subordinates to extend themselves fully. Statements 67, 70 and 49 concern the "target" or standard-setting function of the superior, while Statement 41, though somewhat similar, stresses a common strategy for maximizing production output. Statements 31 and 58 reflect concern for task accomplishment in the form of expressed willingness on the part of a superior to face up to the normally unpleasant necessity for a corrective action. Finally, Statement 14 (of questionnaire 5a) was included to obtain an over-all or global picture of task orientation.

(4) Consideration of Others

The second dimension of Component II refers to the degree to which the manager is oriented toward and concerned with the general feelings, needs and well-being of people in the workplace (statements 13, 16, 22, 27, 32, 35, 45, 50, 53 and 54 of questionnaire 3, and statements 59, 63, 69, 74 and 78 of questionnaire 4).

The emphasis on human relations in industry today is a

surprisingly recent phenomenon. Though its sources are many and varied, in large part it can be viewed as a reaction to the almost exclusive concern for the design and organization of tasks which was so characteristic of the scientific management movement of the 1920's. In this era, the management function, particularly at lower levels, was approached as a "nuts and bolts" one, concerned with breaking tasks down into their simplest components, finding enough "hands" to do the work, and making certain that it was done. Since that time, most managers have come to realize that individuals do not consider themselves as "hands", but rather as "heads", and want much more from work than payment for doing simple tasks as "hired hands". There is now much more recognition that the kind of social climate that is established in the work setting has a considerable impact, not only on the stability of the work force (in terms of absenteeism and turnover), but also on the efficiency with which departmental operations are performed. As described earlier, the successful manager must now, as never before, consider people -- their attitudes and motives, along with task achievement as an essential facet of his role, and his skill in dealing with them face-to-face is as crucial as technical knowledge or organizational know-how.

This basic orientation toward people, so essential a part of the managerial role, can take many forms. It can be viewed as a low-to-high continuum of intensiveness, along which managers can be compared in terms of the degree to which concern for people enters into and influences their leadership practices. Authors previously cited (Blake

& Mouton, 1964), succinctly describe the manager who falls on the high side of this continuum, one whose concern for the comfort and happiness of people is a preoccupation and an obsession. Much of his efforts are directed toward the creation of a country-club atmosphere, with the judicious avoidance of even healthy and constructive conflict or a sense of urgency. This pattern of behaviour, like its opposite (neglect of the needs and feelings of people), is, according to this author, symptomatic of a deep sense of insecurity in one's management position and is basically dysfunctional for any business organization.

One can find among some managers who consider the human element to be of profound importance in business, those who could be described as "hard nosed" -- the tough, no-nonsense disciplinarian who believes that people will invariably take advantage of managers who are too friendly and approachable, who are quick to criticize, and who believe that the work setting is not the place to satisfy personal needs. There are those also, among the people-oriented managers, who believe that an efficient, productive department or unit is best achieved when the manager plays an essentially supportive, sympathetic role in their relations with subordinates, who believe that subordinates should learn from errors rather than be punished for them, and who consider an informal, friendly approach to others to be a precondition for good communication upward and downward in the organization. The manager's orientation toward interpersonal factors in the workplace, as well as toward task achievement then, reflects

the individual's basic perception of his managerial role in the organization.

This dimension was, like Task Orientation considered to be an important one in a contrast of the attitudes of the two ethnic groups toward the managerial function. One would predict on the basis of the previous discussions of the leadership model, that the typical French Canadian manager, though evincing interest and concern for others in general (due to his leaning toward the social-humanitarian objectives of work as seen in chapter IV) would nevertheless show less over-all consideration for others in the workplace than would the typical English Canadian manager. This would likely be true since the former would possess much less awareness and understanding of the feelings and work aspirations than the latter of subordinates and to a greater extent, would experience a deep-seated fear that unless he exerted his authority to the fullest, others would quickly lose concern for the work objectives of his unit.

The statements in this dimension can be grouped into three general themes. The first theme reflects broad and general notions of human relations, and is composed of two aspects. The first one concerns the image of the kind of person the individual would like to be in terms of his relations with people both inside and outside the workplace (statements 50 and 69). The other aspect of this first theme expresses the intentions or aims of the superior, that is, the intended impact or end result of these broad principles in dealing with people. Statements

32, 59, 74 and 63 refer to the broad and general social climate of the work setting while Statement 78 refers to the specific context of the work activity itself. Taken as a whole, these statements in the first theme concern the "what" in terms of human relations, that is, what general principles one should adhere to, and what end result these principles should have in actually dealing with people.

The second theme reflected in the over-all dimension concerns the "how" of handling subordinates in how-to -face interactions within the workplace, that is, they express the manner in which the superior should actually behave in dealing with the needs of subordinates (statements 13, 16, 22, 27, 35 and 45). The third and final theme suggested in this dimension would seem at first glance to be a part of the Interpersonal Premises dimension, since the Statements, 53 and 54, reflect assumptions about human nature. However, they were included here because they are, in fact, specific outcomes or manifestations of a manager's concepts relating to the needs or motives of others rather than a direct expression of his personal ideology of human nature.

(5) Participation in Decision-Making

The first dimension of component III refers to the degree to which the manager values or recognizes the importance of the involvement of subordinates in decision-making (statements 18, 23, 42, 46 and 52 questionnaire 3 starting on page 14, statement 66 of questionnaire 4, and statements 12, 13 and 15 of questionnaire 5 A, appendix Q).

As previously indicated, the manager's view of the two basic aspects of his role -- tasks and people, determines to a large extent his inclination toward the kind of leadership style or strategy he implicitly views as appropriate in his relationships with subordinates. Though leadership style may be viewed from several perspectives and vary somewhat according to the many different administration functions, one of the most significant of these is the way in which the leader processes decisions in his department or unit, particularly, the degree to which he is inclined toward sharing or distributing the decision-making function among members of his team. Although the participation of subordinates in operating decisions is always a relative, rather than an all or nothing affair, there are two somewhat opposing schools of management thought on the subject, each representing a style of management in use today in Canadian business organizations.

One practice, which is commonly called "participant" (or "collegial") style of management, embodies the notion that since subordinates are often directly and intimately affected by managerial decisions, there is a strong inherent need in most of them to participate in the determination of matters which affect them. The manager who endorses this view of the needs and desires of his work group sees his role as extending far beyond keeping employees informed of decisions made, but rather, views the maximum involvement of subordinates as a useful, and even necessary, requirement for the most efficient operation of his department. Underlying this participative style is the belief, one

that is well supported by research evidence, that there is a definite and positive relationship between the degree of involvement in important decisions, and people's motivation to perform tasks effectively as well as to accept and implement changes in procedures with less resistance and sense of threat.

Another rather impelling reason for the adoption and use of management participation is the fact that it is the most direct and most effective way to develop managerial talent among subordinates, providing ideal "rehearsals" for later management responsibilities. Indeed, the view is now becoming widespread that greater decision-sharing by the manager in the modern corporation is becoming a necessary, rather than simply a wise strategy to employ, since the decision-making process in an organization at all management levels is becoming an exceedingly complex affair, requiring more diversified expert knowledge which the manager himself cannot possibly all possess. Whatever the rationale may be for its use, this management style involves very centrally a basic trust and confidence that subordinates will in fact perceive a clear relationship between the attainment of their own personal goals and those of the organization, and will thus be vitally interested in contributing in a meaningful way to decisions which affect their department. In short, the involvement of subordinates in decision-making is common in instances where the manager trusts that subordinates are highly motivated and responsible citizens of the enterprise, and rare when mistrust and skepticism about the motivation and interest of

subordinates exists in the manager.

A second and essentially opposite practice is commonly referred to as the "leader-centred" style of management. It embodies the notion that the job of the manager is to manage, which means that since he is held fully accountable for departmental decisions, it is he, and not subordinates, who should make them. The manager who holds to this view sees the role of the subordinate to be limited to the implementation of decisions, rather than extended to the involvement of the subordinate in judgments about what course of action should be followed. Though he feels he "delegates" tasks to his work team, his delegation typically takes the form of the allocation or assignment of specific duties, leaving little "elbow room" for the subordinate relative to the manner in which the task is to be completed. Though there are a number of possible reasons why this style of leadership may be adopted by a particular manager in an organization, it is safe to say that it is in rather common use among managers who fear that subordinates will misuse or abuse opportunities to involve themselves in decision-making, and will seriously encroach upon the manager's power and authority if given such an opportunity. It is also widely used among managers who view subordinates as being basically indifferent to organizational goals.

It should be emphasized here that while these two styles of management are in wide use in the essential forms described above, there are in fact many gradations of participation in decision-making, ranging from allowing subordinates a limited hearing in the manager's decision-

making, through delegating to them some measure of responsibility for gathering information and for reducing some of the alternatives in particular decisions, to allowing them a large measure of freedom to decide on what line of action should be taken on a particular matter. Among managers in Canadian business there are, in short, many variations in the degree to which the subordinate is allowed or encouraged to participate in decisions.

The major interest of the researchers was in a comparison of the two ethnic groups in their endorsement of one or the other basic styles of leadership. As suggested by the model, it was considered possible that the participant management style would be favoured much more by English Canadian managers, than by French Canadians, chiefly because of the former group's stronger belief in the intrinsic motivation and interest of subordinates regarding the accomplishment of work tasks. The English Canadian manager would not then be inclined to dominate decision-making in his unit, but would more likely view his role as a kind of partnership with members of his work team. The French Canadian manager, on the other hand, would be more inclined toward the leader-centred approach to decision-making, partly because he would see the decision-making function as an essential management prerogative, and partly because of his more limited confidence in the intrinsic work motivation of subordinates.

The nine statements utilized in this attitude dimension reflect the manager's role in the decision-making process. Statements 18 and

15 stress the general importance and value a manager attaches to the participation of subordinates, Statements 66, 42, 46, 12, 13 and 23 describe various situations or conditions in which participation is or is not permitted.

(6) Supervisory Control

The second dimension of Component III refers to the degree to which the manager believes in the need for close control of subordinates in the workplace to meet established standards of performance (statements 17, 28 and 36 of questionnaire 3, Pages 14 and 15, statements 60, 72, and 77 of questionnaire 4, statements 11 and 16 of questionnaire 5A).

Another aspect of leadership style among managers in industry is the degree to which control is exercised over the work activities of subordinates, more specifically, the degree to which supervision of their work is close or general in nature. There is no doubt that in the present industrial era, the progressive rise in the skill and educational level of the work force has resulted in increasing demands by its members for a greater measure of control over their jobs, and more autonomous self-determination as members of the organization. The general trend of thinking among enlightened managers today is that too much management control can be self-defeating, and within a wide range of situations, it is not only feasible but definitely advisable to replace close control with support, supervision with coordination. In short, the planning, monitoring and reviewing function of management

is receiving increasing emphasis in the workplace and there has been over the past few years, a slow but progressive lessening in the close control and "steering" of the work activities of subordinates, even those low in the hierarchy. One major source of this trend has been due to employee demands for greater autonomy (as mentioned above), but partly also it has been due to the accumulation of a systematic body of research knowledge (Likert, 1961), which indicates that members of high-producing work groups tend to be those who supervise generally rather than closely, and who define their roles as coordinators, clarifiers of problems and issues in the workplace, and as information suppliers and processors for their work groups. Managers of low-producing teams tend to supervise closely, regiment employees, and constantly follow up and check on their performance.

There are, of course, many managers who have resisted this trend toward more general supervision, and who still view their role as one of an overseer, interpreting their command function to mean that subordinates must be watched over constantly. They view the delegation of any control beyond the performance of routine as a distinct threat to their power and as disruptive to the smooth operation of their departments.

As with the other dimensions of management, the researchers viewed the control aspect of management style to be an important and significant one in a comparison of the two ethnic groups. The possibility that French Canadians and English Canadians would differ in their

views of this aspect of their roles as managers was considered to be a likely one. The more egalitarian nature of the English Canadian culture might well predispose its members to value and adopt a more general mode of supervision, while the more authoritarian nature of the French Canadian culture might well manifest itself in the more active and vigorous use of control by members of this culture in management positions. As the leadership model suggests, this inclination toward a more controlling form of leadership style on the part of the French Canadian manager would at the same time be fostered by his view that unless subordinates are under close surveillance, their work efforts would seriously slacken, while the English Canadian, having more confidence in the interest of subordinates in achieving work goals, would allow them greater freedom from control.

Of the eight statements employed to tap this aspect of leadership style, Statements 17, 11 and 16 refer to the general importance a manager attaches to the close supervision of subordinates, while Statements 60, 72 and 77 refer specifically to the control over the decision-making process. Statement 28 emphasizes the control over others through rules and regulations while Statement 36 suggests the development of a subordinate's initiative through the use of general supervision.

To recapitulate, the following research hypotheses covering each of the six attitude dimensions incorporated in the leadership model, are set forth as follows:

Hypothesis I: Due to the major differences in cultural influences between the two ethnic groups, French Canadian managers will value the status of their position of authority much more than will English Canadian managers in their relations with others in the workplace.

Hypothesis II: Because of these same differences in cultural influences, and because the two ethnic groups would diverge in their views of the value of status, French Canadian managers would, in their basic ideology concerning other people, adhere more closely to the more negative theory or conception of the work motivation of subordinates than would English Canadian managers, while this latter group would, much more than French Canadian managers, adhere to the more integrated, positive outlook embodied in Theory Y.

Hypothesis III: Because of the basic differences in management philosophy predicted in Hypothesis I and II, French Canadian managers will show a higher degree of over-all Task Orientation than will English Canadian managers.

Hypothesis IV: Due to the higher exclusive concern on the part of French Canadian managers for the accomplishment of organizational tasks, as indicated in the above hypothesis, managers of this ethnic group will show less over-all Consideration for Others in the workplace than will English Canadian managers.

Hypothesis V: As a result of the differences hypothesized in the first two components of the leadership model English Canadian managers should adopt a style of management that will favour the participation of subordinates in the decision-making process to a greater degree than will be the case with French Canadian managers.

Hypothesis VI: For similar reasons, French Canadian managers will tend to supervise subordinates more closely than will English Canadian managers.

Measurement Techniques Employed

The techniques employed to derive the indices for each leadership scale on which the two ethnic groups are compared are identical to those utilized in Chapter IV with regard to the goal conflict scales. The reader is therefore referred back to pages 133 to 144 inclusive of Chapter IV for a detailed description of those techniques and their rationale. A few additional comments, however, are in order.

The reader will note that the questionnaire format employed in the study of "The Management of People" varies somewhat (in contrast to the single format used in the measurement of "Goal Conflict", as outlined in Chapter IV). While some of the statements (those in questionnaire 3, pages 11 to 15) use the identical "Completely disagree - Completely Agree" scale format as that used for the measurement of Goal Conflict, a somewhat different approach has been employed in Questionnaire 4 (pages 16 - 17). In this questionnaire, the individual is required to indicate how often he believes a good superior should act

toward subordinates in the situations described in the statements. It was felt that the use of this particular type of format, one which has been tested and proven in other research studies, would be more appropriate to the content of these statements, thus enabling the individual to answer more easily. It should be noted, however, that in Questionnaire 4, as in Questionnaire 3, an eight-point scale has again been employed. So that percentage agreement with the statements could be uniformly employed in reporting the research results, thereby simplifying the interpretation, the format employed in Questionnaire 4 was considered, for all intents and purposes, to be equivalent to the one used in Questionnaire 3. For example, the scale position 1 in Questionnaire 3, which reflects complete disagreement, was considered to be equivalent in term of intensity of attitude, to the scale position 1 of Questionnaire 4, which reflects the opinion that a good subordinate should "never" act in the manner described in the statements. Similarly, the scale position 8 on Questionnaire 3 ("Completely Agree") was considered to be equivalent in attitude intensity to the same position on Questionnaire 4, ("All the time").

Because of the near-equivalence of the scale formats of the two questionnaires, then, the term percentage agreement was used here also to express the research findings for the statements in Questionnaire 4. Following this procedure the "percentage agreement" with the statements in Questionnaire 4 refers to the percentage of managers who feel that a "good" superior should act in the manner suggested in the statements

"A little more than half the time", "A good deal of the time", or "Most of the time", or "All the time", that is, the percentage of managers who place their answer at any point within scale positions 5 through 8. As stated above, this would be equivalent to the "Slightly agree" to "Completely agree" categories of Questionnaire 3, as used in reporting the results for Goal Conflict, in which case percentage agreement with a particular statement reflected the percentage of managers who answered within these four scale positions. It was felt that this was a reasonable assumption to make and the analysis of intercorrelation of statements, in fact, confirmed the validity of this assumption.

Questionnaire 5a on pages 17 - 18 represents another variation in format, that the researchers felt would be an interesting style to use for presenting certain over-all measures of the dimensions studied. As it turned out, only two of these statements, based on an analysis of the intercorrelation of statements, were found to be scalable, suggesting that this format is not generally a very reliable one.

Research Results

In the presentation of "Research Results", which follows immediately, the findings for the attitude dimensions incorporated in the leadership model will be reported in the order in which the three components of the model were described earlier in this chapter. In the first component the research findings for Interpersonal Premises will be presented followed by a report of the findings for Status Needs. The findings for the two attitude dimensions of the second component Task Orientation and Consider-

ation of Others will follow in that order. The presentation of results for Participation in Decision-Making and Supervisory Control, the two dimensions of the third component, will complete the analysis of attitudes toward the "Management of People".

(1) Interpersonal Premises

As was noted on page 370 of this chapter, a total of twelve statements were utilized in the questionnaire to tap this dimension of Interpersonal Premises. In the derivation of a common or core scale, three of these statements, did not significantly correlate with the other items previously mentioned. These are Statements 19 and 47 of Questionnaire 3 (pp. 14 and 15) and Statement 17 of Questionnaire 5a (page 18) to be found in Appendix X. Analysis of the intercorrelations among the remaining statements revealed that two core scales could actually be developed: a major scale consisting of a total of seven statements, and a minor one comprised of two statements. The major scale, hereafter referred to as Scale H, consists of the following statements:

Statement 56: "Employees are lazy by nature"

Statement 39: "Most people try to do as little work as possible."

Statement 34: "Generally, one must learn to be suspicious in relation with others."

Statement 37: "Praising workers for good work only leads to demands for more pay."

Statement 55: "The nature of a superior's job makes it necessary for him to be unpopular with his subordinates."

Statement 24: "The only guarantee of good work is a fat pay envelope."

Statement 29: "The usefulness of the product he is making is of little concern to the average employee."

The reader is reminded that these statements have been listed in order of importance in terms of their connotation of meaning for the major scale (see page 246, chapter IV). As the reader may observe in examining the content of these statements (with particular emphasis on the first four), the over-all theme of this major core scale is the general level of confidence that an individual has in other people's intrinsic interest in work and basic commitment to the organizational goals of the institution to which they belong. It is interesting to note that the two "key" statements (56 and 39) in the cluster ("key" in the sense that they are more highly intercorrelated with each other than with any other statement in the cluster), constitute two of the fundamental assumptions about people that a Theory X manager has (McGregor's theory is outlined on page 371 of this chapter).

As one might expect, this postulate of man's inherent apathy toward work is related to his indifference in the end-product of his activities (statement 29) and therefore to the traditional theory of motivation based upon the familiar notion of the "economic man" (statements 37 and 24). It is no wonder that under such circumstances, "one must learn to be suspicious in his relations with others" in the work situation.

The minor scale, hereafter referred to as Scale H1, consists of Statements 51 and 11, reproduced below:

Statement 51: "Superiors are usually criticized more than they deserve.

Statement 11: "Even if they would never openly admit it, most subordinates are pleased when a superior slips up."

The essential theme of this cluster concerns the attributed disloyalty of others toward the manager's role as reflected by the manager's perception of the aggressiveness that others direct toward his position of authority. The manager who agrees with the statements of this scale obviously attributes ulterior motives to others, the nature of which reflect very strong feelings of being treated unjustly.

Before comparing both cultural groups on each of these two clusters, it should be noted that, contrary to our expectations, Statement 55 turned out to be intrinsically related to the work motivation dimension and not to the loyalty dimension as originally thought (the interested reader is referred to the intercorrelation matrix shown in table 11 of appendix K). The individual who agrees with this statement then is not making a value judgment regarding the loyalty or disloyalty of others but simply stating that "being unpopular" is part of one's job as manager if one lacks confidence in others. Indeed if a manager cannot trust others because "people are lazy by nature" and not intrinsically interested in their work, he will undoubtedly tend to be unpopular with his subordinates being presumably obliged, in order to get the job done, to force them to work more or less against their will by using coercive methods that they would find difficult to accept.

Turning to a comparison of French Canadian and English Canadian managers on their responses to Scale H, the major core scale of this Interpersonal Premises dimension, Table 1 shows the distribution of the means of the two ethnic groups across organizational levels within

Table 5.1 - Distribution of Mean Scores on Interpersonal Premises, Scale H, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(47) 4.0*	(27) 3.6*	
C ₁	EC	(57) 3.2	(77) 2.8	
C ₃	FC	(126) 4.3*	(80) 3.6*	
C ₃	EC	(86) 2.9	(73) 2.7	
C ₁₀	FC	(73) 4.6*	(21) 3.8*	
C ₁₀	EC	(125) 3.1	(91) 2.8	
C ₄	FC	(151) 4.3*	(111) 3.6*	(6) 3.7*
C ₄	EC	(149) 3.1	(172) 2.8	(61) 2.3
C ₅	FC	(148) 4.6*	(44) 4.0*	
C ₅	EC	(251) 3.0	(91) 2.9	
C ₂	FC	(301) 4.3*	(246) 3.9*	(17) 4.6*
C ₉	EC	(81) 2.9	(111) 2.9	(28) 2.7
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(19) 3.4
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(102) 2.5

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

the companies for this scale.¹

Inspection of the data reveals that in all fifteen level comparisons, the French Canadian group mean is higher than that of the English Canadian group. This trend is, of course, statistically significant. In addition, all fifteen mean differences are large and also statistically significant. In short, French Canadian managers' level of confidence in others is much lower than it is for English Canadian managers and the fact that large differences are found at all levels of all companies indicates that it is clearly a strong cultural difference. The magnitude of the difference is further emphasized by the fact that the mean scores for the total French Canadian management group (combined across all levels of all companies) is 4.1 (σ 1.4), while that of the total English Canadian management group is only 2.9 (σ 1.1). It is also interesting to note that the French Canadian group means at the three successively higher levels of management are 4.4 (σ 1.4), 3.8 (σ 1.3) and 4.0 (σ 1.5) respectively. The corresponding English Canadian means are 3.0 (σ 1.2), 2.8 (σ 1.1) and 2.5 (σ 0.9).

It is apparent that the gap between the two groups remains a wide one at all three levels and that French Canadian top management's outlook on people's motivation to work remains quite skeptical, much more so than that of English Canadian top management. These results indicate

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In interpreting the data for Scales H and H1, it should be noted that the higher the mean, the lower the degree of confidence in others, and conversely, the lower the mean the greater the trust in other people.

that the English Canadian management group is on the whole much closer than the French Canadian group is to the desired climate of mutual trust that an organization should have at its management level in order to function with maximum effectiveness as a fully integrated management team.¹ The two groups differ widely in their management philosophy of the individual worker and the hypothesis (hypothesis I), which predicted that French Canadian management thinking would be much more tinted with elements of Theory X than would be English Canadian management's frame of reference, is verified.

An analysis of each of the seven statements of Scale H² revealed that for six of them, the trend whereby the percentage of French Canadian group members who endorsed the statement was greater than that of the corresponding English Canadian group, was found to be statistically significant. The French Canadian percentage was found to be greater in all fifteen comparisons for Statements 56, 39, 34 and 29; in fourteen of fifteen comparisons for Statement 24 and in thirteen cases for Statement 55. Furthermore, large and significant differences within each of the fifteen comparisons were identified in all comparisons for Statements 34 and 29, in fourteen comparisons for Statements 39 and 24, in twelve comparisons for Statement 56 and in ten cases for Statement 55. It is thus clear that the large differences between the two groups are widespread

¹ The reader is referred to the footnote on page 252 of Chapter IV for a description of the rationale behind this interpretation.

² The distributions of percentages are to be found in Tables 30 to 35 inclusive of Appendix Y for Statements 56, 39, 34, 55, 24 and 29 respectively.

not only in terms of the number of companies and management levels involved but also in terms of the number of statements that were found to contribute to this difference.

The dramatic difference between the two ethnic groups in terms of this conceptualization of the drives, interests and needs of others is perhaps best illustrated by Statements 39, 29 and 34 shown in Tables 31, 35 and 32 respectively of Appendix Y. Table 31 reveals that although the majority of people disagree with this statement (more than 50% disagree) the discrepancy between the two ethnic groups is substantial in terms of percentage agreements. When considering the fifteen French Canadian management groups, it can be seen that the percentage of managers who agree with the statements varies from 16.7% to 45.4% depending on the group. For the English Canadian management groups, this percentage varies from a minimum of 4.1% to a maximum of 20.6%. In six French Canadian groups, the percentage of managers who agree with the statement is above 40%, in six other groups it is between 30% and 40% while in the remaining three, two are in the twenties, the lowest percentage being 16.7%. In contrast, the percentage of English Canadian managers who agree with this statement is less than 10% in six groups, between 10% and 20% in eight groups and in only one group is it above 20% (20.6% to be exact).

The number of English Canadian managers who agree is almost negligible when one considers that in fourteen groups, the percentage agreement is actually less than 18%. It is interesting to note that the percentage of French Canadian managers who agree with the statement

is more than five times as large as that of English Canadian managers in two cases, approximately four times as large in two others, three or almost three times as large in eight others, and approximately twice as large in the remaining three instances. Thus, many more French Canadian managers believe that "most people try to do as little work as possible". Since this statement is an explicit formulation of the first assumption of McGregor's Theory X, it can safely be concluded that, as a cultural group, French Canadian managers are much more Theory X oriented in their outlook than are English Canadian managers.

A similar pattern appears to exist for Statement 29 (see table 35 of appendix Y), only in this case there is hardly any overlap at all in percentage agreement between both ethnic groups. The French Canadian group percentages vary from 22.2% to 50% while those of the English Canadian groups vary from 4.8% to 24.6%. In seven French Canadian groups the percentage agreement is over 40% (one being 50%), in four others it is between 30% and 40%, while in the remaining four, the percentages vary between 22.2% to 27.7%. Only two English Canadian groups are found at this lowest French Canadian level of percentage agreement, the remaining groups varying between 4.8% and 20% with two below 10%. Although the majority of managers disagree with this statement, it is clear that many more French Canadian than English Canadian managers, regardless of type of company or level of management, believe that the average employee is indifferent to the contribution he makes to society by being intimately associated with the manufacture of a "useful" product.

Having noted such large differences between the two groups on two fundamental dimensions of work motivation, it is not surprising to find that the statement on which the two groups differ most in opinion is Statement 34. The results shown in Table 32 of Appendix Y indicate that in all but two cases, the majority of French Canadian managers agree with the statement, while in all cases a large majority of English Canadian managers disagree with it. In nine English Canadian groups, the percentage of managers who agree with the statement is less than 20%, the highest percentage in the fifteen groups being 27.1% and the lowest 6.5%. The lowest French Canadian percentage is 25%, the second lowest is 46.5%, the remaining thirteen being above 50% with seven in the sixties and one in the seventies. In ten cases, the French Canadian percentage is at least three times as large as the English Canadian percentage. In top management it is close to four times as large in two instances and more than eight times as large in the third case. The extremely large gap between both groups persists and even slightly increases from one level to the next.

The significance of this finding cannot be overestimated. As ethnic management groups, French Canadian and English Canadian managers are actually worlds apart in their thinking with regard to one of the most fundamental, if not the most important principle of human behaviour underlying man's relationship to man in any type of organizational setting. The attitude one has toward others on this dimension is the foundation for the development of sound, meaningful and constructive relationships that constitute the rock upon which organizations are built and the

assurance of their continued growth. It is also a major contributing factor to an individual's state of mental health at work. Many reasons could undoubtedly be invoked for this extremely divergent outlook on others by these two groups, some of which have already been suggested elsewhere (the reader is referred to the first section of this chapter dealing with the development of the leadership model). More will be said on this point later, after having had the opportunity to examine all of the dimensions of the model. Suffice it to say for the time being, that the leadership climates of the two groups, stemming from such divergent ideologies, are very different indeed and the differential impact on subordinates should be most significant.

A much more strongly worded version of Theory X than that of Statement 39 is found in Statement 56. It is undoubtedly for this reason that, as indicated in Table 30 of Appendix Y, the greater majority of managers of both ethnic groups disagree with this statement. Nevertheless, here also, many more French Canadian percentages vary from a low of 14% to a high of 41.1% while those of the English Canadian groups range from 3.9% to 20.6% only. The large discrepancy between the two groups is illustrated by the fact that while in eight French Canadian groups the percentage agreement is 20% or more and in no French Canadian group does one find a percentage below 10%, in eight English Canadian groups, the percentage is below 10% (two below 5%) and in only one case is the percentage agreement above 20%. In all but three cases, the French Canadian percentages are at least twice as large as the English Canadian percentages. Thus a significantly greater number of

French Canadian managers believe that "employees are lazy by nature."

Finally, the denial of motivating forces other than money for the successful accomplishment of tasks is much more widespread among French Canadian managers than among English Canadian managers, as evidenced by the results shown in Table 34 of Appendix Y, even though the majority of people disagree with the statement. In fact, in only one French Canadian group is the percentage agreement above 10%, and in seven groups it is below 5%. Thus only a very small minority of English Canadians are of this opinion. The same cannot be said however for French Canadian managers, since in ten groups, the percentage agreement is above 20% with four in the thirties, and in only three groups do less than 10% of the managers agree with the statement.

With such a strong Theory X-orientation, one would expect to find that more French Canadian managers than English Canadian managers would believe that their job "makes it necessary for them to be unpopular with their subordinates", for reasons already outlined above (see page 395). This is indeed the case, as shown by the results in Table 33 of Appendix Y. Although the great majority of managers disagree with this statement, the fact remains that in three French Canadian groups more than 25% of the managers agree with this statement and in only four groups does the percentage fall below 15%. In contrast, for French Canadian managers, the percentage of managers who agree falls below 15% in twelve of the fifteen groups (in eight groups it is below 10%!) and in no English

Canadian group does one find a percentage greater than 25%. It is interesting to note that this notion seems to be more prevalent among first level French Canadian managers than among second level managers, although large differences between the two ethnic groups still exist in middle and top management.

Let us now turn to an analysis of the responses of the two groups to Scale H1, the minor scale of this dimension. This scale, as previously noted, concerns the perceived disloyalty that subordinates show toward the manager's role, and is composed of Statements 51 and 11. Table 2 shows the means of the two groups for this scale. In fourteen of the fifteen level comparisons, the French Canadian means are larger than those of the English Canadian's. This result is, of course, statistically significant and indicates that in comparison to English Canadian managers, French Canadian managers, as an ethnic group, are much more of the opinion that others act in a disloyal manner toward them. In thirteen of the fifteen comparisons the French Canadian group means exceed those of the English Canadian corresponding groups by large and significant amounts. In terms of an over-all comparison of means, the French Canadian total group means was found to be 6.4 (σ 1.9) while that of the English Canadian total group was 5.7 (σ 2.0). It is interesting to note that at level 1 the French Canadian group means is 6.6 (σ 1.8), at level 2 it is 6.0 (σ 1.9) and 5.7 (σ 2.1) at level 3. The corresponding English Canadian group means are 6.1 (σ 1.9), 5.4 (σ 1.9) and 5.0 (σ 1.7) respectively. Thus, although both groups adopt more positive attitude toward others at successively higher levels of management, the gap between

Table 5.2 - Distribution of Mean Scores on Interpersonal Premises, Scale H 1, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(106) 6.7**	(35) 6.6*	
C ₁	EC	(78) 6.3	(82) 5.5	
C ₃	FC	(127) 6.3**	(80) 5.9**	
C ₃	EC	(83) 5.9	(72) 5.6	
C ₁₀	FC	(73) 6.6*	(21) 6.2*	
C ₁₀	EC	(125) 5.9	(90) 5.4	
C ₄	FC	(151) 6.5**	(112) 5.7*	(6) 4.0**
C ₄	EC	(150) 6.2	(171) 5.3	(60) 4.9
C ₅	FC	(147) 6.7*	(44) 6.6*	
C ₅	EC	(252) 6.1	(93) 5.5	
C ₂	FC	(309) 6.7*	(246) 6.1*	(17) 6.4
C ₉	EC	(78) 6.2	(112) 5.5	(28) 5.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC			(20) 5.6*
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC			(103) 4.8

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

** Indicates a significant difference beyond the .13 level of confidence.

them remains a significantly wide one at all levels. These results are in the direction predicted by Hypothesis 1 namely, that French Canadian management ideology would be much more negatively oriented toward the motives or intentions of others in the workplace.

An examination of the responses given by managers of both ethnic groups to each of the two statements (statements 51 and 11 shown in table 36 of appendix Y and table 9 of appendix Z respectively) reveals that the differences between the two groups on Scale H1 are primarily due to their opinions relative to Statement 51. For both of these statements, it can be seen that the percentages of managers who agree are generally quite high (the great majority of percentages are above 50%).

For Statement 51, however, the French Canadian percentages are higher in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons, twelve of which are larger by statistically significant amounts. The average difference was found to be 15%. In twelve groups the French Canadian percentage is above 70% with only one group below 60%. Eight English Canadian groups are below 60% with only three being above 70%. No significant pattern was found for Statement 11. Thus while both groups agree about equally that subordinates "are happy when a superior makes a mistake", a significantly greater percentage of French Canadian managers are of the opinion that they are unduly criticized by others.

The fact that so many managers of both ethnic groups agree with these two statements, especially Statement 11, indicates that this

aspect of human relations could leave much to be desired in terms of establishing a tension-free level of mutual rapport among Canadian management people. This would, of course, depend on the reasons behind these feelings. The researchers would suspect that they are different for each ethnic group. It is possible that the English Canadian opinion reflects the strong competitive atmosphere usually found in groups with high achievement needs and strong identification with the organization. The French Canadian opinion, on the other hand could simply be a symptom of vindictiveness on the part of subordinates who are oppressed and frustrated under such an authoritarian regime.

In concluding this analysis of Interpersonal Premises, it should be noted that the results and corresponding interpretations generally apply as well to French Canadian managers of a French Canadian firm (company 2) when compared to English Canadian managers of an English Canadian firm (company 9). It is therefore apparent that the personal ideology of the French Canadian manager is not the result of his being a manager in a bicultural setting. It does however imply that being a member of a bicultural team in no way affects his personal management philosophy. Hence, the results on both Scales H and H1 are dramatically clear and unambiguous. Managers of the two ethnic groups hold entirely different assumptions about the attitudes and behaviour of subordinates in the industrial setting. In outlining the dynamic forces at play, it was hypothesized that one major reason for this state of affairs could lie in the different perspective that each would have toward the status of their managerial position, a consideration to which we shall now turn.

(2) Status Needs

The pattern of interrelationships among the ten statements which were originally selected to measure this attitude dimension of the first component of our model (see page 366), revealed that three statements had to be dropped from consideration: Statements 15, 71 and 48. Of these three, Statements 15 and 71 showed some relationship with the majority of the other statements, but not of sufficient strength to merit their inclusion in the scale, while Statement 48 showed no relationship with the other statements. The core scale for "Status Needs", hereafter referred to as Scale I, thus consisted of seven of the total of ten statements employed. For the reader's convenience, these seven statements are reproduced below in order of importance in terms of their connotation of meaning for this scale.

Statement 12: "A superior never has to explain his acts to his subordinates."

Statement 43: "A good superior should never admit it to his subordinates when he makes a wrong decision."

Statement 20: "It weakens a superior's authority when he has to admit that one of his subordinates has been right and he has been wrong."

Statement 26: "A superior doesn't allow his subordinates to make jokes about him, if he wants to keep his authority."

Statement 40: "To openly express one's disagreement with a superior's decision regarding an important problem shows a lack of respect for authority."

Statement 38: "When a decision has been made and subordinates have been notified of it, it is a bad policy to go back on that decision."

Statement 30: "A superior cannot afford to make mistakes."

As can be seen by inspection of these statements, especially the first few, the theme of this scale conforms closely to the general definition of the "Status Needs" attitude dimension previously outlined (see page 366), that is, "the degree to which the individual uses and protects the authority and prestige of his management role in dealing with subordinates." In Scale I, the predominant connotation is the superior's perception of the unimpeachable nature of his authority and his need to guard and protect his infallibility as an authority figure, as reflected strongly not only in the two "nuclear" statements of the scale, (statements 12 and 43), but also in the next two statements in order of importance, Statements 20 and 26.

Table 3 shows for Scale I a comparison of the means of the two ethnic groups across organizational levels within the companies.¹ Of the fifteen level comparisons, it can be seen that the means of the French Canadian group exceeds those of the English Canadian group in thirteen. This trend is of course, a statistically significant one and clearly indicates that, as an ethnic group, French Canadians value more highly the status of their position of managerial authority, feeling definitely more strongly that their acts and decisions are above question and reproach, than do English Canadian managers

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In interpreting the data for Scale I, it should be noted that the higher the mean, the greater the need for status, and conversely, the lower the mean, the less emphasis managers place on the status of his position.

Table 5.3 - Distribution of Mean Scores on Status Needs, Scale I,
for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown
by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L 1	L 2	L 3
C 1	FC	(45) 4.2	(27) 3.9	
C 1	EC	(58) 4.3	(75) 3.9	
C 3	FC	(123) 5.1*	(81) 3.9*	
C 3	EC	(83) 3.9	(72) 3.3	
C 10	FC	(71) 4.8*	(21) 4.0	
C 10	EC	(123) 4.2	(91) 3.7	
C 4	FC	(150) 4.5*	(111) 3.8*	(6) 3.3
C 4	EC	(148) 4.1	(171) 3.4	(59) 3.1
C 5	FC	(146) 5.3*	(43) 4.3	
C 5	EC	(248) 4.3	(92) 4.2	
C 2	FC	(307) 4.9*	(243) 4.6*	(17) 4.8*
C 9	EC	(77) 4.5	(109) 3.8	(28) 3.5
C 1, 3, 10, 5	FC			(19) 3.4
C 1, 3, 10, 5	EC			(103) 3.2

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

as an ethnic group. This wide difference between the two groups in their views of the status-authority dimension is further attested by the fact that in the thirteen instances in which the French Canadian means are higher, nine are larger by significant amounts. The wide disparity between the two groups can also be seen in the large and significant difference between them in the over-all means, which, for the French Canadian group was found to be 4.6 (σ 1.6), while for the English Canadian group it was 3.9 (σ 1.3).

In this context also, it is worth noting that the differences between the two groups in their views on the value of authority holds up across all three organizational levels, with the means of the French Canadian and English Canadian group respectively being 4.9 (σ 1.7) and 4.2 (σ 1.4) at the lower level of management, 4.2 (σ 1.5) and 3.7 (σ 1.3) at the middle level, and 4.0 (σ 1.5) and 3.2 (σ 1.1) at the higher level. Thus while for both ethnic groups, the trend upward at successive levels of the hierarchy is for managers to place less emphasis on the value of their status, and have less tendency to view their position of authority as being supreme, the differences between the two groups are nevertheless maintained, and in fact are slightly larger (in terms of the means) at the higher level of management than at the other two echelons. Thus, going from the lowest to the highest level of management does not at all diminish the differences between the two ethnic groups on this aspect

of status concerns, as one would hope. The research findings for Status Needs thus confirm the hypothesis, Hypothesis I, which predicted that French Canadian managers would value the status of their position of authority more than would English Canadian managers.

In this context it is worth noting that in the interpretations of these results, the researchers have not intended to imply that French Canadian managers are status-conscious, while English Canadian managers are not. Indeed, the mean levels of both groups are high enough to warrant the assertion that managers of both ethnic groups value the status and authority of their position more than is considered desirable according to the standards outlined previously (page 252 of Chapter IV). The main point is that French Canadian managers value status significantly more than do their English Canadian counterparts.

Turning to the individual statements of the scale, it was found that a significantly greater percentage of French Canadian managers agreed with five of them (statements 12, 20, 26, 40 and 43) while the opposite was found to be true with Statement 38. With regard to Statement 30, the number of times the percentage of French Canadian managers who agreed exceeded that of English Canadian managers was not sufficient (nine of fifteen comparisons, see table 10 of appendix Z) to warrant the conclusion that a cultural difference existed on this particular point. Tables 37 and 41 of Appendix Y show the results for the two most discriminating Statements, 26 and 40. For both statements, the French Canadian percentage exceeds the corresponding English Canadian one in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons.

The trends are therefore significant ones, and further attesting to the large discrepancy between the two groups on these statements is the fact that eleven percentage differences are statistically significant for Statement 26 and ten for Statement 40.

For this latter statement, it can be seen that the percentage differential between the two groups is quite large. Although the majority of managers of both groups in most cases disagree with the statement, the French Canadian percentage of managers who do agree with it is at least twice as large as the corresponding English Canadian percentage in seven instances. The French Canadian percentages vary from a low of 16.7% to a high of 64.7% while those of English Canadian managers range from 8.2% to 39.2% only. In seven French Canadian groups, the percentage agreement is above 40% while in only four groups is it found to be below 30%. Eleven of the English Canadian percentages, on the other hand, are below 30% and none are found to be above 40%. Thus many more French Canadian managers believe that to openly disagree with a superior's decisions on important matters is an open manifestation of an individual's lack of respect for his superior and the authority he represents.

Significantly more French Canadian managers also believe that to preserve the authority status of their position, they should not allow subordinates to make jokes about them. Table 26 (appendix Y) reveals that in seven of the French Canadian groups, the percentage of managers who agree with the statement is above 50% with four percentages actually in the sixties. In only three groups is this percentage below 30%. In contrast, in

only one English Canadian group did more than 50% of the managers agree with the statement (actually 51%) and for six other groups, the percentage agreement was below 30%.

It is worthwhile noting that both of these statements refer to overt behaviour on the part of subordinates, a conduct which will not tend to be interpreted in the same manner by members of each of these two ethnic groups. The implications of the results from a communication standpoint are obvious in terms of their effect on the manner in which various management activities will be carried out in the organization. For example, the practice of conducting group meetings in an effort to foster more effective teamwork in the solution of important problems has become more prevalent as industry has become increasingly aware through the medium of the social sciences of the long-term benefits that can be derived from such "brainstorming" in group problem-solving sessions.

It is rather well-known, at least it has always been the experience of the researchers whenever they have in one way or another been involved in such sessions, that in meetings where members of both cultures are present, French Canadians hardly participate, in contrast to their English Canadian colleagues. Since these meetings are always conducted in English, the inability of the French Canadian to become "involved", at least as much as his English Canadian colleagues, is invariably attributed to his difficulty in "following" the conversation. The fact that the French Canadian himself usually invokes the same socially-acceptable reason for not partici-

pating only reinforces this stereotyped explanation. Although it undoubtedly is a contributing factor, the authors of this report believe that it is not the major one by far. Indeed, their results strongly support that the authoritarian climate of the French Canadian milieu creates, within the French manager, a state of mind which seriously inhibits any inclination on his part to freely voice in these meetings any personal viewpoint that might deviate from those of his superiors on the perceived consensus of the group. In addition the easy, informal atmosphere that usually characterizes such sessions, a typical English Canadian strategy that serves to alleviate tensions, only tends to increase the uneasiness and anxiety of the French Canadian member.

In the light of these comments, it is interesting to see that, for both of these statements, the French Canadian percentage drops rather markedly at successively higher levels of management, thereby suggesting that many French Canadian managers who reach higher levels of management, do change attitudes with respect to these two points. It should be remembered however that large differences still tend to persist at these higher levels. Finally, the high percentage of French Canadian third level managers in the entirely French Canadian company (company 2) who agree with this statement, in contrast to the low percentage of other third level French Canadian managers, underlines the strong influence of the French Canadian culture on these matters. In short, the inability of the French Canadian to utilize his resources and have others benefit from them in group meetings, is probably to much greater extent the result of a bicultural problem of adaptation than it is the outcome of a bilingual problem.

The other three statements on which significantly more French Canadian managers than English Canadian managers agree relates to a manager's strong defensive reactions toward personal errors in an effort to protect the status of his position. It can be seen by examining the distribution of percentages shown in Tables 38, 39 and 40 of Appendix Y that the large majority of managers of both ethnic groups, especially in middle and top management, actually disagree with the statements. This is undoubtedly due to the very strong wording of these statements. Nevertheless, the percentages of French Canadian managers exceed those of English Canadian managers in twelve of the fifteen comparisons for Statements 12 and 43, and in eleven instances for Statement 20. Again for all three statements, the largest differences between the two ethnic groups, are found at the lower level of management.

For Statement 12, the French Canadian percentage agreement is above 20% in seven groups and below 10% in four. The English Canadian percentage agreement is above 20% in only one group, and in six others it is below 10%. For Statement 20, four French Canadian percentages are above 15% (one as high as 24%), eight between 5% and 15% and three below 5%. No English Canadian percentages are above 15%, eleven are between 5% and 15% and four, below 5%. Finally, for Statement 43, six French Canadian percentages are above 10%, four between 5% and 10% and five others below 5%. All English Canadian percentages are below 10% with only three being above 5%.

It might be well to point out at this time that the method

chosen to analyze these statements, though a generally sound one¹, is not the most sensitive one to apply in all cases. When dealing with a statement worded in a very socially desirable or undesirable manner, one can expect most if not all of the people to either agree or disagree with it. In such instances obviously a simple study of the statement in terms of a percentage agreement is not generally revealing. One should then examine further the extent to which the managers of each ethnic group agreed or disagreed. It was therefore decided that in the few instances when such a distribution of percentages occurred, an additional table would be presented whenever differences were found between the two ethnic groups in terms of the extent to which each group agreed or disagreed with this statement. Again in order to avoid the presentation of cumbersome data, it was decided to present, in such instances, the distribution of percentages for extreme categories of responses only [either the "completely agree" or "strongly agree" categories or a combination of both (in questionnaire 4 it would be the "Most of the time" - "All of the time" categories) or the "completely disagree" or "strongly disagree" categories or a combination of both (the corresponding questionnaire 4 categories being "Never" - "Rarely") depending upon which best reflected the trend of results.²]

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The reader is referred to pp. 254-255 of Chapter IV where the rationale of this method of analysis is outlined.² It should be remembered that the extent to which managers agree or disagree with a statement influence the mean scale scores presented in this report.

For these three statements then, Tables 38a, 39a and 40a are presented, giving the distribution of percentages of managers of each ethnic group who endorsed the "completely disagree" or "strongly disagree" categories. It can readily be seen in examining these tables that French Canadian managers are actually more status-conscious than their English Canadian colleagues since, on the whole, they do not disagree as much with these statements. In other words, although both groups tend to disagree with the statements, English Canadian managers, as an ethnic group, tend to either completely or strongly disagree with them while French Canadian managers, as an ethnic group, tend to moderately or slightly disagree with them. For Statements 12 and 43, the French Canadian percentages exceed those of the English Canadian groups in fourteen comparisons, the majority of differences being fairly substantial ones. For Statement 20, French Canadian percentages are higher in eleven comparisons.

A significantly greater number of English Canadian managers agree with one statement, Statement 38. Table 42 of Appendix Y reveals that the English Canadian percentage exceeds the French Canadian percentage in twelve of the fifteen comparisons. It is obvious, however, that the difference is not a very important one since the average percentage difference is only 7% in a situation where a majority of each ethnic group agrees with the statement.

Before concluding this section, a final comment should be made relative to Statement 15. The pattern of relationships between this

statement and the other statements was not sufficiently similar for each ethnic group to warrant its inclusion in an over-all scale of Status Needs. It would appear that for reasons unknown to the authors, to flatly state that "a subordinate who makes jokes about his superior lacks respect for authority" does not have the same status connotation for each of these two ethnic groups. At any rate, it is most interesting to note the wide divergence in point of view between French and English Canadian managers on this statement as revealed in Table 1 of Appendix X. In all fifteen comparisons the French Canadian percentage is higher than that of the corresponding English Canadian group and in thirteen of them, the difference is a statistically significant one. Although the percentages of both groups are high, those of the French Canadian managers are unusually high. In five French Canadian groups the percentage agreement is above 80%, in four others it is between 70% and 80% while in the remaining five, four are in the sixties, the lowest being 50%. No English Canadian percentages are in the eighties, only three are in the seventies and nine are below 60%, three of which are actually below 40%.

A comparison of the results for Statement 15 with those of Statement 26 (table 37, appendix Y) reveals that a substantially greater percentage of managers of both ethnic groups endorse the former statement. Thus many managers feel that, although "a subordinate who makes jokes about a superior lacks respect for authority", they would not go so far as to say that they would not allow a subordinate to do so, in order to keep their authority.

In concluding this analysis of Status Needs, it is clear that on the whole, the typical French Canadian manager, much more than the English Canadian manager, holds to a philosophy of management which dictates that the status of his position in the hierarchy must be guarded jealously since it is the tool he relies on most in his efforts to accomplish tasks through others. He very likely is, as a manager much more "on the defensive" in his superior-subordinate relationships, much more fearful that any questioning of his judgment or humorous allusions about his person will reflect negatively on the idealized image he holds of himself and will only serve to undermine his stature in the eyes of those around him. These conclusions generally apply as well to French Canadian managers of a French Canadian firm (company 2) when compared to English Canadian managers of an English Canadian firm (company 9), suggesting once again that the status needs of the French Canadian manager, are not the result of his being a manager in a bicultural setting but rather stem from deep-rooted cultural factors.

Since members of the two ethnic groups have different status needs as well as a rather markedly divergent viewpoint regarding the work motives of subordinates, it is not difficult to imagine that because of these differences in outlook, their attitudes toward the accomplishment of tasks as well as the consideration they show for others will not be the same, an area of investigation which we will look into immediately.

(3) Task Orientation

The first dimension of Component 11 of the leadership model

was investigated with the use of fourteen statements (as shown on page 374 of this chapter). A study of the intercorrelations among these statements for each group taken separately indicated that a total of eight had to be eliminated because they did not show a similar pattern of relationships to the other statements of the dimension for both ethnic groups. It should be noted here however, that of the eight statements which were dropped, some of them could have been included in a scale for one or the other of the groups, but would not have formed a scale which would have the same meaning for both ethnic groups. Because of their general interest to the study of this attitude dimension, however, they will be commented on in the analysis of the separate statements which follow a little later in the discussion of the scale statements. Of the fourteen statements then, only six could be used to form scales with the same meaning for both ethnic groups. An analysis of these six statements revealed that two minor scales could be developed, each composed of three statements. These two scales will hereafter be referred to as Scale J and Scale K. Scale J contained the following statements:

Statement 61: "He reminds others of the amount of work that has to be done."

Statement 76: "He emphasizes the quantity of work to be done."

Statement 79: "He puts pressure on his subordinates to get more production from them."

This scale reflects the strong "pressure to produce" aspect of task orientation, the major theme being the manager's dominant concern and preoccupation with the gross output or volume productivity aspect of

task orientation, even to the extent of exerting pressure on subordinates and driving them to fulfill output norms. Scale K is composed of the following statements:

Statement 70: "He maintains high standards of performance."

Statement 67: "He insists that the deadlines that have been set for a given job be respected."

Statement 73: "He encourages slow-working subordinates to greater effort."

In this scale, the theme reflects strong task concern, but in this case, the emphasis is upon the superior's "target-setting" function -- the degree to which he "structures" tasks for subordinates in the sense of maintaining and fulfilling standards and deadlines which have been set. It should be noted that the basic difference between Scale J and Scale K is that the latter one tempers strong task concern with a recognition of the needs of people, this latter aspect being reflected by the notion of encouraging slow subordinates, contained in Statement 73. Scale J, on the other hand, emphasizes the pressure tactic in getting subordinates to accomplish tasks, pushing subordinates rather than supporting or encouraging them to meet output standards.

Turning to a comparison of the French Canadian and English managers in their responses to Scale J, the first scale in "Task Orientation", Table 4 shows the distributions of the means of the two groups across organizational levels within the companies for this scale.¹

¹ It should be noted that the higher the mean, the greater the degree of emphasis on task achievement as reflected by Scale J, while the lower the mean, the less the emphasis.

Table 5.4 - Distribution of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale J, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(99) 6.8	(34) 6.6	
C ₁	EC	(79) 6.4	(85) 6.5	
C ₃	FC	(125) 6.6*	(81) 5.8*	
C ₃	EC	(86) 6.0	(72) 5.4	
C ₁₀	FC	(73) 6.3*	(21) 6.4	
C ₁₀	EC	(124) 5.8	(91) 6.1	
C ₄	FC	(152) 6.6	(112) 6.1*	(6) 6.5
C ₄	EC	(150) 6.8	(171) 5.7	(61) 6.1
C ₅	FC	(145) 6.9*	(41) 6.6*	
C ₅	EC	(251) 6.4	(92) 6.0	
C ₂	FC	(306) 5.9	(244) 6.2	(17) 6.6*
C ₉	EC	(79) 6.2	(110) 5.9	(27) 5.2
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC			(20) 6.2
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC			(103) 5.8

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

These data show that in thirteen of the fifteen level comparisons, the French Canadian means exceed those of the English Canadian groups, thereby indicating a statistically significant trend. In seven of these thirteen cases, the differences are large and important ones. These results indicate, of course, that French Canadian managers, much more than their English Canadian counterparts, are predominantly concerned with volume output, and take a tougher, more production-centered tack toward task accomplishment than do their English Canadian colleagues.

Turning to the over-all comparison of means, the mean for the total French Canadian group was found to be 6.3 (σ 1.9), while for the English Canadian group, it was found to be 6.1 (σ 1.7). While this result at first glance seems to indicate very close proximity in the attitudes of the two total groups, it should be specifically noted here that the small difference between these two means does not truly reflect the actual magnitude of the trend of differences in attitude that does occur (as shown in a comparison of the means across levels). It can be seen that the mean of the French Canadian management group in Company 2 at level 1 is very low (5.9) when compared to the magnitude of the other means in the distribution, thus tending to reduce the size of the over-all mean for the total French Canadian group. Since the number of French Canadian managers in this instance is proportionately very high, this acts to reduce the size of the over-all French Canadian mean by a substantial amount, thus reducing the difference between the over-all means for the two ethnic groups, and giving the illusion of similarity in

attitudes toward this aspect of "Task Orientation".

This relatively low mean score in Company 2 at the first level of management is also of significance in terms of the fact that it shows the French Canadian group at the lower echelon within a French Canadian company to be considerably less task oriented (in the sense reflected in Scale J) than French Canadian managers at this level within English Canadian companies. It is possible that the French Canadian manager at this lower level, being more anxious and ill at ease in a responsible position in an English Canadian milieu, would react by strongly stressing exclusive concern for task output than would French Canadian managers within the relatively less threatening environment of their own cultural milieu. This trend is not apparent for French Canadian managers at level 2 when comparing the English Canadian company to the French Canadian one.

Inspection of the means across organizational levels reveals that the differences between the two ethnic groups hold up across all three organizational levels. In fact, the difference is larger at the higher level of management than at the middle level. For the first level of management, the means were found to be 6.4 (σ 1.9) and 6.3 (σ 1.7) for French Canadians and English Canadians respectively, for middle management they were 6.2 (σ 1.8) and 5.9 (σ 1.7) and for the higher management level they were 6.4 (σ 2.0) and 5.8 (σ 1.8). It should be noted again that the French Canadian mean at level 1 has been reduced due to the effect of the very low mean in Company 2 at level 1

so that the magnitude of the inter-ethnic difference at this level is not accurately represented. It can be seen also that there is a slight drop in the endorsement of this strong concern for output on the part of English Canadians at successively higher levels of management, while such a tendency does not show up for French Canadians across hierarchical levels. This trend would imply then that there is a greater tendency among English Canadians than among French Canadians, as they advance up the hierarchy to modify their views, adopting a less exclusive orientation toward production, and a slightly less "tough" and more supportive approach toward subordinates in the pursuit of work goals. Thus, the two ethnic groups do diverge to a considerable extent in their view of this "pressure to produce" aspect of task concern, and thus, Hypothesis III, which predicted a higher degree of Task Orientation for French Canadian managers than for English Canadian managers is confirmed for Scale J.

Turning next to the second scale of Task Orientation, Scale K, Table 5 shows the distribution of means for the two ethnic groups. It will be recalled that this scale concerns the standard or target-setting function of management. Inspection of the means reveals that of the fifteen comparisons across company levels, the means of English Canadian managers exceed those of French Canadian managers in thirteen instances.¹ This trend is a significant one, showing that English Canadian managers, as an ethnic group, more strongly endorse this task-structuring and goal-

¹ For Scale K, the higher the mean, the greater the emphasis on this "standard setting" aspect of Task Orientation, while the lower the mean the less the emphasis.

Table 5.5 - Distribution of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale K, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
C ₁	FC	(100)	8.5*	(34)	8.7*		
C ₁	EC	(81)	8.8	(84)	9.3		
C ₃	FC	(126)	8.2*	(80)	8.6*		
C ₃	EC	(86)	8.5	(73)	8.8		
C ₁₀	FC	(74)	8.4*	(21)	8.5*		
C ₁₀	EC	(124)	8.8	(92)	9.1		
C ₄	FC	(152)	8.5*	(111)	8.9*	(6)	9.5*
C ₄	EC	(149)	9.0	(169)	9.1	(61)	9.3
C ₅	FC	(148)	8.4*	(44)	8.4*		
C ₅	EC	(248)	8.9	(94)	8.9		
C ₂	FC	(308)	8.2*	(246)	8.7	(17)	9.0
C ₉	EC	(80)	8.9	(110)	8.8	(28)	9.0
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC					(20)	8.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC					(102)	9.0

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

setting aspect of task concern than do French Canadian managers. In the context of the attitude reflected in Scale K then, English Canadians show a higher degree of Task Orientation than do French Canadians. It should be noted also, that in eleven of the thirteen cases in which the English Canadian means exceed those of French Canadians, the differences are significantly large ones. In terms of the over-all comparison of means, the English Canadian total group mean was found to be 9.0 (σ 0.8) while that of the French Canadian group was 8.5 (σ 1.2). This over-all difference is also statistically significant, and further emphasizes the fact that the two ethnic groups diverge quite widely in their views of this aspect of task achievement. It is obvious from the magnitude of both of these means however, that managers of both ethnic groups tend to strongly endorse the view that high standards of task performance should be encouraged, and that work targets should be strictly adhered to by subordinates -- a trend which may be due in part to the strong emphasis being placed in business today on the importance of goal-setting as a major administrative function, and the current popularity of the "management by results" philosophy of organizational functioning.

The means of the two groups across organizational levels were found to be (for French Canadians and English Canadians respectively), 8.3 (σ 1.3) and 8.9 (σ 1.0) at level 1, 8.7 (σ 1.0) and 9.0 (σ 0.7) at level 2, and 9.1 (σ 0.7) and again 9.1 (σ 0.7) at the higher level of management. Thus the difference between the two groups holds up between the lower and middle level of management (the differences between the

means at both levels being significant), but disappears at the higher echelon. This convergence of the views of the two ethnic groups at the senior level of management is likely due to the necessarily strong emphasis on the planning and goal-setting function at top echelons in any large corporation, French Canadian or English Canadian. It is also clear from an inspection of this data that French Canadian managers at higher levels more strongly support than those at lower levels, the view that standards of performance must be emphasized and maintained for subordinates in order to achieve task objectives. The same trend is true for English Canadian managers, but it is less pronounced, with extremely small differences between the means at successive levels. Hypothesis I, which predicted a greater degree of over-all Task Orientation for French Canadian than for English Canadian managers is not confirmed for Scale K, since the latter group more strongly express concern for setting realistic "yardsticks" for the performance of tasks, and encourage subordinates to respect and adhere to them.

Taking the findings of these two scales as a whole then, one finds that the predominant views of the two groups differ markedly toward this over-all important dimension of task achievement in industrial organizations. The typical French Canadian is more task-oriented than his English Canadian colleague in one aspect of work in the sense that he is strongly preoccupied with the urgency of achieving high levels of gross output, even to the point of keeping on subordinates' "backs" to make a good productive showing. In contrast, the typical English Canadian

manager is more task-oriented in another crucial aspect of work in the sense that, to a greater degree than his French Canadian colleague, he is concerned with setting high general standards of excellence for his subordinates, and being more willing and ready to provide encouragement to subordinates who have a difficult time attaining these standards.

As previously indicated (page 376), it was expected that the French Canadian management group would show more over-all concern for task achievement than would the English Canadian group, due mainly to the sense of urgency he would feel to meet output norms. Thus the French Canadian, fearing that unless he shows a high record of production, will lose stature in the eyes of those around him would be expected to use his authority much more than would the English Canadian to make certain that output norms are achieved. It was expected then, that this relatively greater sense of urgency would result in a higher over-all degree of Task Orientation for the French Canadian group. However, it was not possible to use a unitary index of this dimension of Component 11, since the intercorrelation matrix of the statements yielded not one, but two separate attitude scales. Thus, no single and definitive test could be made of Hypothesis III, since two scales of somewhat different connotation for Task Orientation were employed. However, the research findings for Scales J and K are very much in line with the dynamics of our leadership model, as well as with the research findings of Chapter IV, since it was expected that the strong status needs and outlook of mistrust of the French Canadians would lead them to emphasize task achievement at the

expense of good human relations, while English Canadians, having much less concern for status, and being more trusting of the dedication of others, would be less prone to function this way. The fact that the research findings show that the English Canadian group express more concern than do French Canadians for the goal and standard-setting aspect of task achievement in the work setting is one that certainly would be expected, had it been anticipated that a "pure" scale with this specific connotation would have been derived. The much stronger inclination of English Canadians, in contrast to French Canadians, to value economic goals was amply illustrated in Chapter IV, while in terms of the dynamics of our leadership model, it would certainly be expected that the English Canadian, being more egalitarian and confident of the interest of subordinates in seeing jobs well done, would concentrate more than the French Canadian on the target-setting aspect of task concern, and be more sensitive to the needs of others in their pursuit of task or project objectives.

It should be noted in passing that the "desired" level of task orientation, in the sense that it is reflected by Scale J, is not an easy one to define. Certainly the 75% level is not one that would be normally recommended, since this could easily mean that too much emphasis is being placed on the expedient aim of emphasizing volume output without due consideration for the needs of people involved in performing tasks. This strong emphasis could, in the long run, be dysfunctional for any organization. Yet, it would not be realistic

to recommend a low (25%) degree of pressure to produce on all occasions, since there are emergency periods when pressure and drive applied to all members of a department or unit are necessary. In view of these factors, it seems reasonable then that a desired or recommended level of the Scale J aspect of task concern would be about 50% (a mean of 5.0) for managers in industry. The findings reported here then, suggest that both French Canadian and English Canadian managers lean a bit too strongly toward the overriding concern for output and toward pressuring subordinates.

The picture is much clearer for Scale K. The 75% level (and above) of Task Orientation with respect to this scale could certainly be considered the desirable one for management in a large enterprise, in which planning and goal setting, with due regard for the needs of subordinates, would be an important success formula for any administrator. On the other hand, a 25% level of task concern in the sense that it is reflected in Scale K could be considered excessively low, since the efficient production of goods and services is, in effect, the "raison d'être" of any business organization, and relative indifference to the setting and maintaining of performance standards would certainly lead to disastrous results. In short, the findings for Scale K indicate that both French Canadian and English Canadian managers express a concern for standard setting which is above the required minimum, but as discussed in detail in the previous pages, English Canadian managers show significantly more concern than do their French Canadian counterparts.

Having discussed at some length the research findings for Scales J and K, let us now turn to an analysis of the separate statements, commencing with those of Scale J. Of the three statements that comprise Scale J, significantly more French Canadian managers than English Canadian managers agreed with two of them: Statements 61 and 79. The distribution of percentages for these two statements are found in Tables 43 and 44 of Appendix Y. For both statements, the French Canadian percentages exceed the English Canadian percentages in thirteen of the fifteen group comparisons, thus revealing a significant trend, and in ten of these comparisons, again for both statements, the differences are statistically significant. With regard to Statement 61, the rather large differences between the two ethnic groups is illustrated by the fact that eight of the French Canadian percentages are above 60% and in only one group is the percentage agreement lower than 50%. In only three groups does the English Canadian percentage exceed 60% and in seven other groups the percentage agreement is below 50%, two of which are actually in the thirties. For Statement 79, ten French Canadian percentages are above 50% and only one is below 40%. In contrast, only two English Canadian percentages are above 50% and six are below 40% of which four are in the twenties.

Thus many more French Canadian managers than English Canadian managers are of the opinion that a good superior should "remind others of the amount of work to be done" and "put pressure on subordinates to get more production out of them" at least more than half the time. It

is of particular interest to observe that these two statements refer specifically to a concern for production as it relates to subordinates. Statement 76 which reads, "he emphasizes the quantity of work to be done", does not make such an explicit reference to other people. As shown in Table 11 of Appendix Z, this statement does not reveal any significant differences between the two ethnic groups. The majority of managers of both cultures agree with it. It is apparent therefore that both ethnic groups value highly the quantity aspect of production, but one group, the French Canadian one, sees the need to pressure others and remind them of this aspect of work to a greater extent than the other group does, a finding which is very much in line with our model in terms of the observed differences between the groups on the two dimensions of Component I.

As an ethnic group, English Canadian managers agree more than do French Canadian managers, with all three statements of Scale K. Despite the very high percentages found for both cultural groups for Statement 73 as shown in Table 47 of Appendix Y, the English Canadian percentages are higher than the corresponding French Canadian ones in twelve of the fifteen comparisons thereby indicating a significant trend. In nine group comparisons, the differences are statistically significant. Further attesting to the significant difference between the two ethnic groups is the fact that all fifteen English Canadian percentages are above 90% while only eight French Canadian ones are. Although the great majority of managers are of the opinion that a good superior "encourages

slow-working subordinates to greater effort" at least more than half the time, the fact remains that more English Canadian managers than French Canadian managers feel this way.

As shown in Tables 45 and 46 of Appendix Y, Statements 67 and 70 offer good examples of items worded in a very socially desirable manner. Just about every manager in the study feels that these two practices should be observed by good superiors at least more than half the time. Nevertheless, English Canadian managers feel that both of these practices should be put into effect to a significantly greater extent than do French Canadian managers. In thirteen of the fifteen comparisons for Statement 67 and in twelve of the fifteen comparisons for Statement 70, the differences are statistically significant.¹ This is illustrated by examining the distribution of percentages given in Tables 45a and 46a of Appendix Y. It can be seen that the percentage of English Canadian managers who completely agree (that is, who feel the practice should be put into effect all of the time) exceeds that of the corresponding French Canadian group of managers in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons for Statement 67 and in thirteen comparisons for Statement 70. The average difference in percentage in the fourteen cases for Statement 67 is 19% while in the thirteen cases of Statement 70 it is 14%. Thus, as an ethnic group, English Canadian managers put

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The reader will recall that the statistical analysis of the differences between the two ethnic groups within a company on any given statements was made by comparing the mean scores of each ethnic group and not by comparing the percentage agreement per se. For further details, see Appendix A.

more emphasis on maintaining high production standards, meeting deadlines and supporting others in their work efforts than do French Canadian managers.

As previously suggested, these results are consistent with the findings of Chapter IV which showed that the French Canadian manager's value system was significantly less compatible with the activities of a business organization than was the value system of the English Canadian manager. It would therefore follow that the French Canadian manager would not put as much emphasis on these practices as the English Canadian, especially in view of the fact that the former is of the opinion, much more than the latter, that subordinates are not intrinsically motivated to work.

So as to better understand the mentality of both groups, a discussion of a few statements that were not included in these scales is in order. These are Statements 49, 65 and 57. As previously mentioned (see page 421), these statements did correlate with some of the other statements but the pattern of relationships was not sufficiently similar for both ethnic groups to warrant their inclusion in a scale on which these two ethnic groups were to be compared¹. They are, however, meaningful in themselves, since they are related to Task Orientation (see intercorrelation matrices of appendix K) and an examination of

¹ See Appendix L for further methodological considerations.

their percentage distributions will throw some light on the different frame of reference that both groups have toward work in an industrial setting.

Table 3 of Appendix X reveals that the two ethnic groups differ widely in their opinions regarding Statement 65. The French Canadian means vary from a low of 46.1% to a high of 84.8% indicating that a majority of French Canadian managers feel that a good superior "sees to it that his subordinates are working up to their limits" at least half of the time. Many more English Canadian managers feel this way however, since the English Canadian percentages range from 78.8% to 95.1%. In all fifteen comparisons, the French Canadian percentage exceeds that of the English Canadian managers and in fourteen cases, the differences are large and significant. In fourteen of the fifteen English Canadian groups, the percentage is above 80%. This occurs in only two French Canadian groups.

As one might expect in the light of the previous finding, the results for Statement 49, shown in Table 2 of Appendix X reveal that many more French Canadian managers than English Canadian managers are of the opinion that a superior should be "satisfied when all his subordinates meet minimum standards of production." For all fifteen comparisons, the English Canadian percentage surpasses the French Canadian one and in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons, the differences are large and significant. Twelve of the fifteen French Canadian percentages are above 25% (with seven actually above 40%) while all fifteen English Canadian

percentages are below 25%. Further evidence of the very large discrepancy between the two groups is provided by the fact that in ten comparisons the English Canadian percentage is at least three times as large as the corresponding French Canadian one (in five instances it is at least five times as large).

The results of these latter two statements are, of course, consistent with the previously reported findings for Scale K. Relatively speaking, the typical French Canadian manager tends to be more satisfied than the typical English Canadian manager with "attaining minimum standards of production." He does not tend to feel that subordinates should generally be "working up to their limits." It is therefore not surprising to find that on Scale K, English Canadian managers are more task-oriented than French Canadian managers in terms of setting high standards and insisting on meeting the deadlines related to these targets. The findings are also consistent with the leadership model, more specifically with the Theory X concept previously discussed, and also with the data presented in Chapter IV. The French Canadian manager, being less identified with the goals of the organization and strongly believing that people try to do the least amount of work possible, would naturally tend to be satisfied with minimum rather than maximum performance.

Why then would he reveal himself to be more task-oriented than his English Canadian colleague on Scale J? Again it was suggested that this could be due to his being more anxious to produce in an English

Canadian setting, being, so to speak, "forced to produce" (see page 348). It was pointed out that this would also be in line with our model since the Theory X manager, if forced to produce, would tend in turn to apply pressure on his subordinates. The results of Statement 57 tend to substantiate this point of view by providing additional pertinent information. The data shown in Table 6 of Appendix X indicate that a very small minority of managers, be they French or English Canadian, tolerate that certain subordinates not reach "the required minimum level of performance." Nevertheless, French Canadian managers, to a much greater extent than English Canadian managers, feel that such a practice should never be endured, as shown by the distribution of percentages in Table 6a of Appendix Y.¹

These results indicate that in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons, the French Canadian percentage exceeds the English Canadian percentage. Twelve of these differences are statistically significant. Twelve French Canadian percentages are above 20% (five being above 30%). Only one English Canadian percentage is above 20% and six are below 15%. Thus the French Canadian manager tends to be much more rigid than his English Canadian colleague in his attitudes toward work productivity.

¹ The reader should note that these statistically significant differences are based on an analysis of mean score differences and not on an analysis of percentage differences (see Appendix A).

The picture which gradually emerges from these results is that French Canadian managers, as an ethnic group, have a tendency to function in a manner analogous to that of hourly-rated work groups such as those found in the classic Hawthorne studies (Mayo, 1945) which identified the strong influence of the group in structuring upper and lower limits of production standards and rigidly enforcing these norms on its members. In effect these groups strongly adhered to the minimum standards set by the organization and in the words of Sartain and Baker "their production standard seems to have acquired an ethical basis: 'it was not right' either to exceed or to produce under it by any great amount" (1965, page 82). It is interesting to note in passing that among many other reasons, the meaningfulness of an individual's work, and the extent to which he feels that his sense of dignity or self-esteem is being compromised, are considered to be primary factors in developing this rigid work mentality.

The results of the conflict scales discussed in Chapter IV have clearly demonstrated that, relatively speaking, the French Canadian manager's self-esteem or self-worth is indeed compromised by working in an industrial environment, be it a French or English Canadian one. His personal management philosophy, as shown in this chapter, as well as in Chapter IV, indicates that he is not intrinsically interested in nor identified with work activities per se. In his eyes, neither are those around him. His main preoccupation, we have seen, is to protect the status of his position. As a result, he does not tend to feel as

much as an English Canadian manager does, that "he should see to it that his subordinates are working up to their limits." Nor will he be predisposed as much to set as a personal goal the maintaining of high standards of performance along the lines of Scale K. He will instead be more inclined to settle for the attainment of minimum standards. Being strongly motivated to protect the status and security of his position, however, he will not tend to tolerate as much as the English Canadian manager that "certain of his subordinates not reach the required level of performance." He will therefore, being more Theory X oriented, as seen in Scales H and W1, tend to "pressure" his subordinates into furnishing this minimum production, as indicated by Scale J.

In short, bicultural industrial organizations are found with an acute problem of being staffed by a management team that has, so to speak, a "double work standard" along cultural lines. One ethnic group, English Canadian managers value accomplishment and productivity by setting high standards and playing a supportive role by creating a climate that fosters the attainment of these goals, a climate based on the manager's basic confidence in his subordinate's intrinsic interest in and willingness to meet the challenge. The other ethnic group, French Canadian managers, **valuing** to a much lesser degree such goals for reasons previously outlined, **are** satisfied with the attainment of minimum output, rigidly enforcing, however, this personal standard on subordinates, out of a great fear that unless he does so, no work will be accomplished since no effort will be **expended** by the subordinates

themselves, in which case his position of authority would be in serious jeopardy. The effects that this type of "managerial gold-bricking" mentality have on the consideration a manager has for subordinates will now be discussed.

(4) Consideration of Others

As was indicated on page 377 of this chapter, a total of fifteen statements were employed to investigate this second attitude dimension of Component II. In the derivation of a common or core scale, it was found that four of the statements had to be dropped, since their correlation with the other statements was not sufficiently strong to warrant their inclusion in the scale. These were Statements 32, 35 and 27 of Questionnaire 3, and Statement 78 of Questionnaire 4. An analysis of the interrelationships among the remaining eleven statements revealed that two core scales could be derived: a major one consisting of seven statements, and a minor one composed of four statements. The major scale, hereafter called Scale L, consists of the following statements reproduced below.

Statement 53: "To satisfy subordinates' needs is to encourage their mediocrity."

Statement 54: "Most employees who are in a jam have only themselves to blame."

Statement 45: "The best way to handle tough subordinates is to be tougher than they are."

Statement 22: "It is often useful to put a loud subordinate in his place with a sarcastic remark."

Statement 16: "It is a good thing to humiliate a subordinate a little bit, if you want him to improve his conduct."

Statement 13: "When a subordinate complains, the first duty of a superior is to show him where he is wrong."

Statement 50: "The first quality of a good superior is to be likeable."

An examination of the statements reveals that the theme in this aspect of Consideration of Others has the connotation of a "hard line", essentially unsympathetic and unfeeling approach to subordinates. The two "nuclear" statements, Statements 53 and 54, refer to the general frame of reference within which the superior will relate to subordinates in the workplace, and is, in its connotation, a natural outcome of the Theory X philosophy of human nature frequently alluded to in this chapter. In short, the first two statements set the stage with respect to the degree to which the superior takes into account the needs of others in the action context of his face-to-face interactions with them, while the remaining statements indicate the way in which the superior will behave toward others within this context. The theme of the statements in Scale L reflect a "drill sergeant" mentality and reflect the typical approach of superiors in a hard-nosed, authoritarian regime, with Statements 45, 22 and 16 particularly, bordering on the abusive.

The minor scale, hereafter referred to as Scale M has a tone and flavour which is quite different from that of Scale L. As can be seen on inspection of the four statements shown below:

Statement 63: "He makes his subordinates feel at ease when talking with him."

Statement 69: "He interests himself in others."

Statement 59: "He helps his subordinates when they have personal problems."

Statement 74: "He stresses the importance of high morale among his subordinates."

In this scale, the essential theme embodies the connotation of the development of a broad and general climate of good human relations in the workplace. The emphasis in the scale is upon the concern for setting a pleasant tone to one's interpersonal relationships established at work, for being "outgoing", "helpful" and for creating a spirit of congeniality within the work setting. Scale L thus differs from Scale M in that this latter one does not specify what action should be taken in specific situations with subordinates, while the former one deals with specific, face-to-face actions in human relations practices.

In view of these comments, the reader may wonder about the content of Statement 50 of Scale L which objectively states that being likeable is the first quality of a good superior. It was not anticipated that this statement would be related to the statements of Scale L rather than to the statements of the minor scale just described. As it turned out, it did not correlate significantly with any of the Scale M statements in either ethnic group. It did, however, for both ethnic groups significantly correlate negatively with the statements of Scale L to warrant its inclusion in that scale. ¹

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The intercorrelation matrices are given in Tables 15 and 16 of Appendix K. For further methodological considerations, see Appendix L.

In other words, the more an individual believes that "the first quality of a good superior is to be likeable", the more he tends to agree with the other statements of Scale L. As paradoxically as this may sound at first glance, this finding is not out of line with what we know about paternalistic management practices. Paternalism in industry is generally characterized by generosity and kindness in matters indirectly connected with work, the "fringe benefits" aspect of the job. Being likeable to others, in a general sort of way, is one such characteristic of the paternalistic manager. This good treatment, however, is invariably accompanied by strict control over others on work matters. A natural outcome of the Theory X philosophy of management, the paternalistic manager's approach is that of a father to a son who must be treated with kindness but led with a firm hand. In this climate, little attention is given for involving the thinking or satisfying the feelings of subordinates on matters directly related to output or productivity. The worker is required to produce under a strict disciplinarian regime which does not allow the subordinate to "step out of line" during working hours.

Viewed in this manner, the relationship of Statement 50 to the other statements of Scale L is meaningful. The crux of the matter lies not in the fact that a good superior should be likeable but rather in making this personal characteristic the first quality of a good superior. It would appear that the individual who places that much value on being likeable, be he a French Canadian or an English Canadian manager, tends to be inconsiderate of others in his relationships with them within the context of task performance.

Let us turn first to the analysis of Scale M, the minor scale of this dimension. This scale concerns the general theme of good human relations in a pleasant and friendly social atmosphere. Table 6 shows the distribution of means for the two ethnic groups.¹ Of the fifteen level comparisons, ten show the means of French Canadians to be larger than those of English Canadians (two means are tied). This trend is sufficiently marked to consider it to be a significant one from a cultural point of view, though a small one for all practical purposes. Thus, the French Canadian group surpasses the English Canadian group in their positive concern for broad and general desires of having harmonious work relationships. The fact that both ethnic groups show strong Consideration of Others in terms of this scale is attested by the magnitude of the general means for both ethnic groups, which are uniformly high across levels, all of them being over 8.0 and several being above 9.0, an exceedingly strong endorsement. The general means for both ethnic groups reflects this pattern, with the French Canadian mean being 8.9 (σ 1.0) and the English Canadian mean being 8.8 (σ 1.2).

The same high level of this aspect of Consideration of Others is true also across organization levels. The means of French Canadian managers at level 1 are, respectively, 8.8 (σ 1.1) and 8.7 (σ 1.1), while at level 2 they were found to be 9.1 (σ 0.8) and 8.8 (σ 1.0), and at the highest level of management, 9.1 (σ 0.7) and 9.0 (σ 0.8). It is

¹ The higher the mean score on Scale M, the greater the degree of Consideration of Others, (in terms of intent), while the lower the mean score, the less consideration.

Table 5.6 Distribution of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others,
Scale M, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers,
shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L 1	L 2	L 3
C 1	FC	(99) 8.7	(35) 9.0	
C 1	EC	(78) 8.6	(84) 8.8	
C 3	FC	(124) 8.8	(81) 9.2*	
C 3	EC	(84) 8.9	(73) 8.7	
C 10	FC	(73) 8.7	(21) 9.1*	
C 10	EC	(121) 8.5	(91) 8.9	
C 4	FC	(151) 8.9	(112) 9.1	(6) 9.5*
C 4	EC	(148) 9.0	(169) 9.2	(61) 9.2
C 5	FC	(145) 8.7	(44) 8.9	
C 5	EC	(248) 8.7	(93) 8.7	
C 2	FC	(305) 8.9*	(246) 9.0*	(17) 9.0
C 9	EC	(81) 8.6	(111) 8.6	(28) 9.0
C 1, 3, 10, 5	FC			(20) 9.1*
C 1, 3, 10, 5	EC			(102) 8.8

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

clear then that members of both ethnic groups have very strong beliefs that principles of good human relations ought to be adhered to in the workplace, that a work climate which encompasses easy, informal and supportive relationships ought to be developed. The fact that members of both ethnic groups surpass the minimum recommended level of consideration, a mean of 7.5 (a level suggested previously in chapter IV page 252, footnote) vouches for the good intentions of both groups in terms of these highly abstract human relations principles.

These findings are to be expected since, as noted above, the statements do deal with general principles rather than specific behaviour in the work place. That is, in view of the high degree of social desirability, it is not surprising that managers of both ethnic groups endorse the existence of a supportive, sympathetic climate at work, and view high morale as important when such broad positive principles are being dealt with. It is in the realm of specific behaviours perceived to be best to follow in dealing with concrete problems involving subordinates that our leadership model would predict the two ethnic groups would be sharply differentiated. Nevertheless, Hypothesis IV, which predicted a greater degree of Consideration of Others among English Canadian managers than among French Canadian managers, is not supported for Scale M.

Considering now a comparison of French Canadian and English Canadian managers in their responses to Scale I, Table 7, shows the distributions of the means of the two groups across organizational

Table 5.7 Distribution of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others,
Scale L, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers,
shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L 1	L 2	L 3
C 1	FC	(45) 6.8	(27) 7.5	
C 1	EC	(56) 6.4	(77) 7.6	
C 3	FC	(124) 6.5*	(77) 7.5	
C 3	EC	(83) 6.8	(73) 7.7	
C 10	FC	(73) 6.3*	(21) 7.5	
C 10	EC	(126) 6.7	(92) 7.8	
C 4	FC	(150) 6.7*	(111) 7.8*	(6) 7.5*
C 4	EC	(147) 7.4	(170) 8.2	(61) 8.6
C 5	FC	(148) 6.0*	(43) 7.3	
C 5	EC	(255) 6.8	(93) 7.4	
C 2	FC	(306) 6.6	(247) 7.2*	(17) 6.9*
C 9	EC	(77) 6.8	(110) 7.5	(28) 7.9
C 1, 3, 10, 5 FC				(17) 7.6
C 1, 3, 10, 5 EC				(102) 7.9

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

levels within the companies for this scale.¹ It can be seen that of the fifteen comparisons shown, the English Canadian managers exceed those of the French Canadian group in fourteen instances. This trend is, of course, a statistically significant one. In addition, eight of these fourteen cases of larger English Canadian means are large and statistically significant. Thus, French Canadian managers, strikingly more than their English Canadian counterparts, evince an inconsiderate, critical and unsympathetic approach to subordinates in the work setting, and of course within the context of Scale L, English Canadian managers show a much stronger degree of Consideration of Others. It is interesting to observe that the French Canadian groups working in their own cultural milieu (company 2) share the same relative degree of endorsement of the "harsh" approach in their relationships with their subordinates. The magnitude of this difference is amply illustrated also in the differences between the over-all means of the total French Canadian and English Canadian groups. The mean for the total English Canadian group was found to be 7.4 (± 1.5), while for the total French Canadian group it was 6.9 (± 1.5). This difference is again a statistically significant one.

It is also of interest to note that the differences between the two ethnic groups are very definitely maintained at successively higher levels of management. For the English Canadian first-level

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For Scale L, it should be noted that the higher the mean the greater the degree of Consideration of Others (that is, the less the endorsement of tough or harsh measures in dealing with subordinates), while the lower the mean, the lower the degree of consideration (and the greater the inclination toward the "hard line approach" in dealing with subordinates).

management group the mean was 6.9 (σ 1.5), while for the French Canadian group at the first level it was found to be 6.5 (σ 1.5). At the middle echelon, the English Canadian mean was 7.8 (σ 1.3), the French Canadian mean, 7.4 (σ 1.4). At the highest management level, the mean was 8.1 (σ 1.0) for English Canadians and 7.3 (σ 1.6) for French Canadians. It is worth noting that while the difference between the two ethnic groups is the same at the second level as it is at the first (0.4), the divergence between them widens at the highest echelon (0.8), in effect, twice as large a disparity. This pattern of findings for levels also shows that for English Canadian managers, those at successively higher echelons show stronger Consideration for Others, in the sense that they endorse, to a much lesser degree than do their French Canadian management colleagues, an inconsiderate critical approach to subordinates in the work setting. The total English Canadian management group is almost precisely at the level considered desirable (see chapter IV, footnote page 252) for a work climate in which a harsh, disciplinarian approach is rejected as a means of dealing with people, while the French Canadian group shows a level of harshness and lack of sympathy which is somewhat below the level considered conducive to good human relations. Taking these results as a whole then, the hypothesis (hypothesis IV) which predicted greater over-all Consideration of Others in the workplace by English Canadian managers is confirmed for Scale L.

Taking the research findings of the two scales together, it is thus safe to assert that the gap between the theory and perceived practice of good human relations in the work setting is much greater for

the typical French Canadian manager than for his typical English Canadian counterpart. In other words, French Canadian managers, even more than their English Canadian counterparts "believe" in the existence of good human relations in the workplace, but much more than English Canadians, they agree with practices that reflect a lack of understanding of the needs of others in the workplace, while English Canadians, comparatively speaking, do not concur with these views. In short, the typical French Canadian managers adopts an essentially paternalistic attitude toward subordinates in the workplace while the typical English Canadian manager does not.

Turning to the statements for Scale M, as can be expected, only one of the four statements revealed significant difference in opinion between the two groups: Statement 63. The results of Table 53 of Appendix Y reveal that almost every manager of both ethnic groups feels that a good superior should put people at ease at least more than half the time. When comparing the two ethnic groups in terms of the percentages of managers who feel that superiors should always do this, it can be seen in Table 53a of Appendix Y that many more French Canadian managers are of this opinion. The French Canadian percentage surpasses the English Canadian one in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons, seven of which are statistically significant ones. The large contrast between the two groups is further shown by the fact that nine French Canadian percentages are above 75% and none below 65% while six English Canadian percentages are below 65% and only one above 75%.

More than 80% of all managers in this study felt that the three

attitudes mentioned in Statements 59, 69 and 74, shown respectively in Tables 16, 14 and 15 of Appendix Z, should be put into practice at least more than half the time. No significant difference could be found between the two ethnic groups at any of the various categories used in the scale.

Of the seven statements that comprise Scale I, five differentiated between the two ethnic groups. In three of the statements (statements 13, 22 and 50, shown in tables 48, 49 and 51 respectively of appendix Y) significantly more French Canadian managers agreed than did English Canadian managers, while the reverse was found to exist in the remaining two (statements 45 and 54 shown respectively in tables 50 and 52 of appendix Y). As can be seen by examining the results of Tables 12 and 13 of Appendix Z, the large majority of managers of both ethnic groups disagreed with Statements 16 and 53 and no cultural differences exist in terms of how managers of each ethnic group feel with regard to their content.

The results of Table 51 (appendix Y) reveal that in fourteen of fifteen comparisons, the French Canadian percentage exceeds that of the English Canadian group and the differences are statistically significant in thirteen of them. Further evidence of the large discrepancy existing between the two groups is given by the fact that five French Canadian percentages are above 60% and six below 40%. In contrast, only one French Canadian percentage is above 60% and ten are below 40%, three of which are actually below 25%. Thus many more French Canadian managers

than English Canadian managers are of the opinion that "the first quality of a good superior is to be likeable". The significance of this finding has been reported elsewhere (see page 445). Although the discrepancies between the two groups persist at all three levels, it is interesting to note that the percentage declines rather markedly from level 1 to level 2 suggesting that difficulties in rapport between these two levels (as we have seen in chapter IV) could to some extent be the result of the emphasis each group places on this personal characteristic.

Many more French Canadian managers also agree with Statement 13, shown in Table 48 (appendix Y). Here also, the French Canadian percentages surpass the English Canadian ones in fourteen comparisons, thus revealing a significant cultural trend, and the differences are statistically significant in thirteen of the fourteen comparisons. Seven French Canadian percentages are above 50% in contrast to only three English Canadian percentages. While only two French Canadian percentages are below 30%, seven English Canadian ones were found to be below this same low level.

It is apparent that the higher degree of endorsement on the part of the French Canadian managers is a natural outcome of a Theory Y mentality backed by strong status needs. It is indeed assumed here (by a person who agrees with the statement) that a subordinate has no right to complain, that he has a job to do and, as unpleasant as it may be, it must be done. Thus a complaint can never be a legitimate one in his eyes and a subordinate who complains must always be wrong.

The final statement on which the French Canadian percentages exceed those of English Canadian groups is Statement 22, shown in Table 49 of Appendix Y. In fourteen of the fifteen comparisons, the French Canadian percentage surpasses the English Canadian one and the differences are statistically significant in twelve instances. Seven French Canadian percentages are above 40% and only five below 30%. In sharp contrast, all fifteen English Canadian percentages are below 30%, eight of which are in fact below 20%. In four comparisons, the French Canadian one is three or almost three times as large as the corresponding English Canadian percentage, while in eight other groups it is twice or almost twice as large. French Canadian managers therefore, much more than English Canadian managers use sarcasm as a method of dealing with this type of problem in subordinates.

It is interesting to note that when faced with the problem of handling the "tough" subordinate, the suggestion of being tougher than he, is rejected by many more French Canadian managers than English Canadian managers. Although the majority of ethnic groups do in fact reject this solution as being the best one to solve this problem, the English Canadian percentage is higher than the French Canadian percentage (see table 50 of appendix Y) in eleven of fifteen comparisons and nine of these are statistically significant. The trend is therefore a significant one and further evidence of the wide disparity of opinion between the two groups on this statement is given by the fact that while ten English Canadian percentages are above 30% and only one is below 20%, five French Canadian ones are below 20% and only four are above 30%.

In the opinion of the researchers, these findings are consistent with the previously described mentality of each group. We have seen that French Canadian managers are much more concerned than English Canadian managers about making others "feel at ease" and "being likeable" in face-to-face relationships. It would then follow that the French Canadian would be less prone to act in an overtly aggressive manner when faced with a problem-subordinate than would his English Canadian colleague. It would indeed be more reasonable to expect him to disguise his aggressiveness through the use of sarcasm, the only acceptable outlet at his immediate disposal.

The extent to which the French Canadian manager values the establishment of friendly and paternalistic relationships is well illustrated by the results shown in Table 4 of Appendix X for Statement 32. Although this statement did not sufficiently correlate, for both ethnic groups, with the other statements to include it in a scale, it does tend to confirm the interpretation just given. It can be seen that in all fifteen comparisons, the French Canadian percentage surpasses the English Canadian one. Moreover, all fifteen differences are statistically significant. Fourteen of the fifteen French Canadian percentages are above 90% while eleven English Canadian ones are below this level with four being actually below 75%. A consideration of the results of Table 4a of Appendix X brings into sharper perspective the basically different orientation of both ethnic groups regarding subordinates. Table 4a presents the percentage of managers who completely agree with this statement. It can be seen that the French Canadian percentage exceeds the English Canadian one in all

fifteen comparisons. In twelve French Canadian groups the percentage is above 50% (four of which are in the seventies and four others in the sixties), the lowest French Canadian percentage being 40%. Only one English Canadian percentage reaches the 50% level (50.6%) and thirteen of the fifteen percentages are below 40%, the lowest French Canadian percentage. It is clear that French Canadian managers as an ethnic group are much more concerned about making subordinates happy than are English Canadian managers. As a result, they will go out of their way to please subordinates on all matters not directly related to the job, to the extent that their status position is not threatened and they will never engage in open conflict exchanges with them.

A final comment is warranted with regard to the second statement that more English Canadian managers than French Canadian managers agreed with, Statement 54 shown in Table 52 of Appendix Y. In eleven of the fifteen comparisons, the English Canadian percentage exceeds the French Canadian one, thus revealing a significant cultural trend. It can be seen however that only three of these differences in percentage are statistically significant (one is even significant in the opposite direction), thus revealing no really large difference of practical significance to merit further discussing it.

In conclusion, it is apparent that both ethnic groups highly value the broad human relations principles related to the Consideration of Others in the workplace. It would appear, however, that the French Canadian manager has a much stronger inclination toward the general well-being of his subordinates in matters which are not intrinsically

work-related, but which appear to emphasize more the social relations aspect of work. Much more than his English Canadian peer, he stresses the importance of being likeable and fostering pleasant, comfortable relationships in which subordinates will always feel at ease, that is, he puts emphasis on making people happy in general. He will tend to avoid, more than his English Canadian counterpart, open conflicts with people, resorting to sarcasm rather than a direct face-to-face confrontation with a subordinate who creates problems. When a subordinate complains, he will, much more than an English Canadian manager, interpret this action as an affront to the image he has of himself as a wise and benevolent superior, and as a result will tend more to defend himself by "setting the subordinate straight". In short, while the Consideration of Others manifested by the French Canadian manager appears to have very strong paternalistic connotations, that of the English Canadian manager appears to be more in line with the requirements of the work situation, placing less emphasis on the feelings of others per se. He will not hesitate to face unpleasant situations involving subordinates in an open and straightforward manner in his efforts to integrate the needs of people to the requirements of the job (see the results for scale I of Task Orientation). As indicated by our leadership model, the different orientations that the two ethnic groups have with regard to tasks and people should result in the development of different management styles for each, a consideration to which we shall now turn by examining the first dimension of Component III: Participation in Decision-Making.

(5) Participation in Decision-Making

A total of nine statements were utilized to assess this first attitude dimension of Component III of the leadership model, as indicated on page 381 of this chapter. An analysis of the intercorrelations among these statements revealed that it was necessary to eliminate five of them because of their low degree of relationship to the other statements. These were Statement 18 of Questionnaire 3, Statement 66 of Questionnaire 4, and Statements 12, 13 and 15 of Questionnaire 5A. The core scale for Participation in Decision-Making, hereafter referred to as Scale N, thus consisted of four of the total of nine statements employed. These are listed below as follows:

Statement 42: "A good superior only delegates to his group those decisions that he does not have time to make himself."

Statement 46: "A person doesn't delegate a decision to his subordinates when he is competent enough to make it himself."

Statement 52: "The only really good use that can be made of subordinates is to get them to handle routine work efficiently."

Statement 23: "When a superior has to make a decision, it is more prudent not to talk about it until it has been definitely made."

It can be seen by inspection of these statements that the theme expresses the narrow limits within which a subordinate's involvement in decision-making is allowed. The first two statements specify that the superior must himself deal with all decisions which his available time and competence permit, while the third and fourth ones specify that subordinates should, in effect, be kept "out of the picture" altogether in the course of decision-making.

Turning to a comparison of French Canadian and English Canadian managers on their responses to Scale N, Table 8 shows the distribution of means for the two groups.¹ The data reveal that in all fifteen comparisons across companies and levels, the English Canadian mean exceeds the French Canadian mean. This trend is, of course, a significant one, and indicates that English Canadians, as an ethnic group, much more than French Canadians, as an ethnic group, strongly favour the involvement of subordinates in decision-making. They are much more inclined to discourage strict restraint and limitation on the voice subordinates have in the determination of departmental matters which affect them. The magnitude of the differences are further illustrated not only by the twelve large and significant differences at various levels but by the large difference between the over-all means of the total English Canadian group and the total French Canadian group. The English Canadian over-all mean was found to be 7.3 (α 1.7), while for the French Canadian group, it was 6.2 (α 2.0).

The differences across organizational levels hold up as well, with the English Canadian and French Canadian means at the lower level of management being, respectively, 6.7 (α 1.7) and 5.7 (α 2.0), at the middle level, 7.7 (α 1.5) and 6.9 (α 1.8), and at the higher level of management, 8.4 (α 1.2) and 6.9 (α 2.2). The differences between the two groups are not only maintained at successive levels of the hierarchy, but are actually

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For Scale N it should be noted that the higher the mean, the greater the degree to which managers favour Participation in Decision-Making by subordinates, as reflected in Scale N, while the lower the mean, the less the favour attached to subordinate participation.

Table 5.8 Distribution of Mean Scores on Participation in Decision-Making, Scale N, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L 1	L 2	L 3
C 1	FC	(105) 5.8*	(34) 6.6*	
C 1	EC	(80) 6.8	(85) 7.7	
C 3	FC	(126) 5.6*	(80) 6.9*	
C 3	EC	(85) 7.1	(73) 7.9	
C 10	FC	(74) 5.6*	(20) 7.4	
C 10	EC	(124) 6.3	(91) 7.5	
C 4	FC	(153) 6.0*	(112) 7.5*	(6) 7.8*
C 4	EC	(150) 7.2	(172) 8.1	(61) 8.7
C 5	FC	(147) 5.3*	(44) 7.0	
C 5	EC	(255) 6.4	(91) 7.2	
C 2	FC	(302) 5.8 *	(247) 6.5 *	(17) 5.7 *
C 9	EC	(81) 6.6	(111) 7.5	(28) 8.5
C 1, 3, 10, 5	FC			(20) 7.7
C 1, 3, 10, 5	EC			(103) 8.2

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

largest at the highest echelon, where English Canadian and French Canadian managers differ widely indeed in the value they place on sharing decision-making with subordinates. Inspection of the trend of mean scores at successively higher levels of management for each ethnic group separately indicates clearly that English Canadian managers at each higher level more strongly favour employee participation than do those at each lower level, while for French Canadians there is no difference between middle and higher-level management in their views on this aspect of leadership style. Thus the pattern across organizational levels for the English Canadian management group conforms to what should in fact be the state of affairs for the truly effective motivation and coordination of management teams in a large corporation -- progressively more involvement in decision-making at successively higher echelons. The French Canadian management group, showing no greater inclination at the higher than at the middle management level to involve subordinates in decision-making, would surely induce frustration and de-motivation among those at the middle level.

A further point which is worth noting is the fact that both the French Canadian middle and higher management group in Company 2 (the company with an all French Canadian work force) have, as shown in Table 8, a mean which is lower than that of managers at this level in any other company. In view of the fact that this is the only exclusively French Canadian milieu, in all probability it more truly reflects the cultural view of French Canadians toward sharing decision-making with subordinates, at least for middle and higher-level managers, one which relatively strongly disfavours participation (as represented by Scale N).

Taken as a whole, the results reported here reveal sharp and consistent differences in the viewpoints of the two management groups, with the English Canadian group being inclined much more strongly toward a participant style of management than the French Canadian group, who lean much more toward a more centralized restrictive style of decision-making. It is safe to say then, that the motivational benefits derived from integrating members of the work team into the department or unit through the process of decision involvement would be greater in teams managed by English Canadians than those directed by French Canadians, the former tending to keep subordinates more "in the picture" of departmental activities, while the latter tend more to carefully harbor the decision-making process as a personal prerogative. Certainly the English Canadian group is much closer to the recommended level of decision-sharing, 7.5 (see chapter IV, page 252 footnote), that level which would be truly conducive to a high feeling of involvement on the part of subordinates regarding matters of important concern to them.

Thus Hypothesis V, which predicted that English Canadian managers would favour the participation of subordinates in decision-making more than would French Canadian managers, is highly confirmed by the research findings reported here for Scale N. The reader's attention is now directed toward a detailed exposition of the percentage agreement expressed by the two groups in the statements which make up Scale N.

Of the four statements which comprise Scale N, it was found that French Canadian managers agree with them to a significantly greater

extent than do English Canadian managers in three: Statements 52, 46 and 23. The distribution of percentages for these three statements are found in Tables 56, 55 and 54 of Appendix Y. (The percentage data for statement 42, which did not significantly differentiate the two groups, can be found in table 17, appendix Z).

As shown in Table 56, for Statement 52, the French Canadian percentages surpass those of English Canadians in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons, and all fourteen French Canadian percentages are significantly larger. For Statement 46, as indicated in Table 55, the French Canadian percentages are larger in thirteen instances, ten being significantly larger, and in Statement 23, as shown in Table 54, fourteen French Canadian percentages are larger, twelve of them exceeding the English Canadian percentages by a statistically significant amount. Thus for all three statements, the trend of differences is significant from a cultural standpoint, and indicate that the two groups are at wide variance with regard to these particular supervisory practices in the area of decision-making.

With regard to Statement 52, it can be seen in Table 56 that the general, over-all level of agreement with the statement concerning the more or less exclusive confinement of subordinates to routine tasks, tends to be on the low side, with the highest percentage agreement being 49.5%, and the others ranging down to 0%. The important feature of this data is, however, the wide divergence between the two groups in their endorsement of the statement, with a generally fair-sized minority of French Canadians agreeing, but with very few English Canadians showing agreement. This

contrast is illustrated by the fact that while the French Canadian percentages exceed 40% in five instances none of the English Canadian percentages even approximate this level. In fact, all English Canadian percentages are below the 20% level, with nine of them dropping below 10%, while only two percentages fall below 20% for French Canadian managers (one being 0%). Inspection of the data for Statement 52 clearly reveals that the strongest endorsement comes from first-level management, with many more lower-level managers of both ethnic groups than middle and upper-level managers feeling that subordinates are only of real use performing routinized work. This is understandable, since the lower the level of management the less that can, in effect, be delegated in the way of decision-making responsibility. Yet the English Canadian group, even within these restraints on delegation, is much more amenable to decision-sharing than are their French Canadian counterparts.

The differences between the two groups on Statement 46, as shown in Table 55, are clearly illustrated by the fact that the French Canadian percentages range from a low of 12.5% to a high of 70.6% agreement, while the English Canadian percentages range from a very low 1.6% to a high of 54.5%. Further, seven French Canadian percentages are above 40%, while only four English Canadian percentages are above this level. Five French Canadian percentages are between 20% and 40%, and only two are below 20%, while the corresponding percentages for the English Canadian management groups are five between 20% and 40%, and six are below the 20% level. The differences are indeed large at the third level of management, where

the percentages of English Canadians who endorse the statement are only a small fraction of the French Canadian percentage is two of the three higher level comparisons. Thus, many more French Canadian managers than English Canadian managers at all three levels are inclined to exclude subordinates from involvement in any decision which the superior himself is at all capable of handling, and hence are much less inclined than are English Canadians to provide opportunities for subordinate members of the organization to "learn by doing" in the making of decisions. In short, French Canadians much more than English Canadians strictly adhere to a "manager's right is to manage" outlook in the work setting.

The distribution of percentage agreement on Statement 23, presented in Table 54, shows once more a pronounced tendency on the part of French Canadian managers in contrast to their English Canadian colleagues, to restrict subordinate decision-making involvement, though it can be seen here that the over-all level of agreement tends to be higher for both ethnic groups (the range being 20% to 77%), and the differences between them less dramatic than they were for Statements 52 and 46. In nine cases, the French Canadian percentages are above the majority agreement level (50%), while English Canadians are in majority agreement with this statement in only six cases. In five cases, English Canadian percentages are below the 40% level while the French Canadian percentages are below this level in three instances. Thus, French Canadians are much more inclined to, in effect, exclude subordinates from the actual process of making a decision, being much more inclined to withhold information from them about decisions being processed. The analysis of these percentage comparisons further

illustrate the wide divergence of the styles of management of the two ethnic groups that was noted in the analysis of the over-all results for Scale N as a whole. French Canadian managers at all levels tend much more to restrict decision participation on the part of subordinates, English Canadian managers being much more inclined to include subordinate members of the organization in the decision-making process. Let us now turn our attention to an analysis of the second attitude dimension in Component III of our leadership model: Supervisory Control.

(6) Supervisory Control

As shown on page 386 of this chapter, a total of eight statements were employed to investigate this second attitude dimension of Component III of our leadership model. In the derivation of a common or core scale, it was found necessary to eliminate four of them, since their correlation with the other statements of the dimension was not sufficiently strong to merit their inclusion in the scale. These were Statements 17, 28 and 36 of Questionnaire 3, and Statement 72 of Questionnaire 4. The core scale for "Supervisory Control", called Scale O henceforth, thus was composed of four of the original eight statements. These four statements are reproduced below.

Statement 77: "He insists that he be informed about decisions made by his subordinates."

Statement 60: "He insists that no decision be made by his subordinates before he himself has been consulted."

Statement 11: "A good superior: 1. looks over the work of his subordinates to make sure all details have been attended to, 2. assumes subordinates will take care of the details by themselves."

Statement 16: "A good superior should check upon his subordinates:

1. very closely
2. closely
3. more or less closely
4. not very closely
5. not at all closely."

Inspection of these statements reveals that the major theme of Scale 0 quite faithfully represents the general definition of this attitude dimension, that was stated on page 386 of this chapter. The predominant theme of the first two statements is the restraint and close control the manager exerts on any judgment or decision made by subordinates, while the second two statements mainly concern the intensity of his surveillance over their work activities.

A comparison of the means of the two ethnic groups across levels and companies, presented in Table 9, reveals that of the fifteen comparisons, thirteen show the English Canadian means to be higher than those of French Canadians, a statistically significant trend.¹ Ten of the instances in which English Canadian means surpass those of their French Canadian counterparts show large and important differences between these means, further illustrating the divergence between the attitudes of the two ethnic groups. The fact that strong cultural differences occur is further attested to by the difference between the over-all means for the total English Canadian and total French Canadian groups. These means were found to be, respectively, 5.8 (σ 1.7) and 4.9 (σ 1.6), the difference between them being statistically

1

For Scale 0, the higher the mean, the less the degree to which close supervision of subordinates' efforts are favoured, while the lower the mean, the more close supervision is endorsed.

Table 5.9 Distribution of Mean Scores on Supervisory Control, Scale O, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L 1	L 2	L 3
C ₁	FC	(83) 4.2*	(28) 5.5	
C ₁	EC	(70) 4.9	(69) 5.5	
C ₃	FC	(125) 4.7*	(67) 5.7*	
C ₃	EC	(82) 6.0	(64) 6.7	
C ₁₀	FC	(70) 4.8	(20) 5.4	
C ₁₀	EC	(119) 5.0	(90) 5.7	
C ₄	FC	(149) 4.9*	(95) 6.0*	(6) 6.5
C ₄	EC	(147) 5.2	(150) 6.8	(53) 7.2
C ₅	FC	(139) 4.1*	(35) 5.2*	
C ₅	EC	(249) 5.0	(84) 6.0	
C ₂	FC	(286) 4.7	(214) 5.2*	(13) 5.3*
C ₉	EC	(80) 4.7	(101) 6.4	(27) 7.1
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC			(16) 6.2*
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC			(83) 6.7

* Indicates a significant difference beyond the .03 level of confidence.

significant in the direction of French Canadians endorsing tighter controls.

It is worth noting also that the wide differences between the two ethnic groups are not only maintained at successively higher management echelons, but these differences progressively increase from the lower through the middle to the higher level. The English Canadian and French Canadian means for level 1 were found to be 5.1 (σ 1.5) and 4.6 (σ 1.5) respectively, for level 2 they were 6.3 (σ 1.6) and 5.5 (σ 1.6), and for level 3 they were 6.9 (σ 1.4) and 5.9 (σ 1.4). This clearly indicates that higher level English Canadian and French Canadian managers are farthest apart in their views of the control and surveillance of subordinates' efforts, (when compared to the disparity between the views of the two groups at the other two levels), a fact which has obvious implications for higher level coordination and communication between English Canadian and French Canadian managers. It should not be overlooked though, that, for both English Canadian and French Canadian managers, the higher the level, the less the inclination toward tight control of subordinates' work. However, at level 3 in Company 2, the sole French Canadian company, the mean is the lowest of any company for this ethnic group at level 3, indicating that higher-level French Canadian managers are more in favour of close control of subordinates than French Canadian managers at this level in English Canadian companies. This same trend holds, though to a slightly lesser extent, for the middle-management level in Company 2.

The results taken as a whole suggest that the leadership styles of the two ethnic groups do markedly differ. The typical English Canadian manager at all echelons of a large industrial organization, but particularly at the highest level, favours much more than does his French Canadian counterpart more general supervisory control of subordinates' work efforts and allows for greater freedom and autonomy for those who report to him. The French Canadian manager favours much more than his English Canadian colleague a regulatory, closer, and more restrictive "control system" in the work-setting. The English Canadian manager is, in short, much closer to the recommended level of supervisory control (as stated in chapter IV, page 252) than is the French Canadian manager, but it should be noted that both ethnic groups, even English Canadians, fall somewhat short of this desired level. Hypothesis VI then, which predicted that French Canadian managers would be inclined more than their English Canadian colleagues, to supervise subordinates closely, is confirmed by the research findings for Scale O.

Turning to an analysis of the statements themselves, significant differences of opinion between the two groups in the direction of French Canadian managers advocating tighter supervisory controls than do English Canadian managers were found for Statements 16, 77 and 60 shown in Tables 57, 50 and 59 respectively of Appendix Y. No consistent trend of differences was found with respect to Statement 11 shown in Table 18 of Appendix Z, to warrant the conclusion of an ethnic difference on this point. It is nevertheless worth noting that in six of the fifteen comparisons, statistically significant differences were found and in all six, many more

English Canadian managers than French Canadian managers being of the opinion that "subordinates will take care of the details by themselves". In two companies (3 and 5), ethnic differences exist at both levels 1 and 2 of management. It is also apparent from the results that managers of both ethnic groups adopt an attitude of close supervision at level 1, a control that they are much more willing to loosen at successively higher levels of management. It would appear then that middle and higher-level managers of both groups learn to trust that subordinates can take care of the details of their assignments, although this learning is not as pronounced with French Canadian managers as it is with English Canadian managers of some large corporations.

Although the differences between the two groups are not substantial nor clear-cut when referring to the control over a subordinate's work assignments, they are indeed large and unequivocal when dealing with the most important function or responsibility of a manager: decision-making. The results of Statement 60 (table 5, appendix X) reveal that the French Canadian percentage is higher than the corresponding English Canadian one in fourteen of fifteen comparisons and the differences are large and significant in thirteen cases. Five French Canadian percentages are above 50% and none were found to be below 20%. In contrast, eight English Canadian percentages are below 20% and none are above 50%. Further evidence of the large discrepancy between the two groups is the fact that, in seven comparisons, the French Canadian percentage is at least twice the size of the English Canadian percentage (in four of these, it is at least four times as large). Thus many more French Canadian managers than English

Canadian managers are of the opinion that "no decision be made" by subordinates before being consulted, at least "more than half the time".

It is interesting to note that although, in general, much fewer middle and higher-level managers endorse such tight controls, this does not hold true for French Canadian top management people, nor does it apply to the managers of the French Canadian company (company 2). Thus French Canadian managers, as an ethnic group at all levels, consider the decision-making function to be their personal prerogative, one that cannot be entrusted to subordinates.

The same pattern of differences was found regarding Statement 77 (table 58 of appendix Y). Although the majority of managers of both ethnic groups feel that this practice should apply at least more than half the time, the French Canadian percentage exceeds the corresponding English Canadian one in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons and ten of these are statistically significant. While nine French Canadian percentages are above 85% and none below 70%, six English Canadian ones are below 70% (four being in the fifties) and only two were found to be above 85%. Thus significantly more French Canadian managers also insist on being informed about decisions that their subordinates do make.

With regard to a general level of close supervision, Statement 16, the French Canadian percentage surpasses the corresponding English Canadian one in twelve comparisons, as indicated by the results of Table 57 of Appendix Y. Five of these differences are statistically significant. Two others, however, are significant in the opposite direction,

thereby suggesting that although the trend is a significant one, the results are not as culturally "pure" as in the case of the two previous statements. Further evidence of this is given by the fact that while four French Canadian percentages are above 50% and five below 30%, two English Canadian percentages are above 50% and eight below 30%.

Finally, it is interesting to compare the percentage distributions of the two ethnic groups on Statement 17, shown in Table 5 of Appendix X. The statement did not sufficiently correlate with the other statements to warrant its inclusion in the scale (presumably, it should have been incorporated in the Interpersonal Premises section of this chapter). The results nevertheless do provide one reason why French Canadian managers tend to supervise more closely the work of their subordinates, a reason which is in line with the dynamics of the leadership model, especially with regard to the Interpersonal Premises and Task Orientation dimensions previously discussed.

It can be seen that all fifteen French Canadian percentages are larger than the corresponding English Canadian ones and in thirteen comparisons, the differences are large and statistically significant. While eight French Canadian percentages are above 25% and none below 15%, eleven English Canadian percentages are below 15% and none were found to exceed the 25% level. Although the majority of managers of both ethnic groups disagree with the statement, nevertheless, many more French Canadian managers are of the opinion that subordinates work better when very closely supervised.

In conclusion, it is evident that the typical French Canadian manager feels that a good superior should exercise much more control over the work activities of his subordinates more than an English Canadian manager would agree to, particularly in the decision-making area of his job, a finding that could be expected in view of the fact that he is also less willing to delegate specific responsibilities to them in this area, as seen in the Participation in Decision-Making dimension of this third component.

To recapitulate the major findings of this chapter, it will be recalled that major differences were predicted between the two groups in their conceptions of and attitudes toward the leadership process in large organizations. As proposed by the model, the leadership process was viewed as encompassing three major components which are linked together in a causal chain, with the attitudes embodied in Component II "unfolding" from those in Component I, and similarly, those in Component III emerging from, and being affected by, those in Component II.

The study was limited to the analysis of two attitude dimensions in each of these three components. Component I consists of the manager's perception of his own role in relation to his dealings with others in the workplace, and embodies his attitude toward, and evaluation of, the status and authority of his position in the enterprise, as well as the personal ideology he holds toward people -- his view of their work-related motives and personal characteristics. Component II embodies the manager's concern for the accomplishment of task objectives, and the consideration he expresses toward the needs and feelings of others in the work setting, and Component III

is composed of two administrative aspects of the management style employed at work: the degree of participation afforded subordinates in decision-making, and the intensity or closeness of control of subordinates' work activities. The prediction of differences between the two ethnic groups were specified in terms of six research hypotheses covering each of the attitude dimensions included in the model.

With regard to the dynamic interrelationships between the three components of the model, it was pointed out that the individual in any industrial organization enters into a managerial position and assumes the role which this position dictates, with a set of attitudes and beliefs concerning himself and other people at work which has, in large measure, been "set" or pre-determined by the culture of which he is a member. These attitudes represent, in effect, the nucleus of his personal philosophy of management. He brings to the workplace deeply-rooted attitudes toward authority and authority figures and the status attached to them and these are, of course, directly reflected in the value he attaches to his status in the company hierarchy. This attitude toward status and authority, in turn, prescribes to some extent the personal ideology he holds with respect to people, the conception he has of the "nature of human nature", and thus his view of their orientation toward work and his role within the work structure.

The research findings are unequivocal with respect to these two basic attitude dimensions embodied in Component I. The typical French Canadian was found to value much more highly the status of his managerial position, and much more than his English Canadian counterpart, was found

to hold a philosophy of management which dictates that one's authority must be carefully guarded, that one's position and person be seriously respected, and that any questioning of one's ideas and judgments constitutes a blatant threat to one's stature, both as a manager and as a person. The English Canadian manager, though believing that his authority is an important aspect of his relationships with other people, nevertheless values it far less strongly, feels much less defensive about it, and appears to fear much less than does his French Canadian colleague that any questioning of his ideas and judgments constitutes an open defiance of his authority. This greater value placed on the need for full recognition of status on the part of the French Canadian manager compared to the English Canadian manager was found to hold true across all managerial levels in the companies studied, indicating a strong cultural difference, rather than an isolated or situational phenomenon.

As the leadership model would suggest, the research findings were equally clear for the Interpersonal Premises dimension of Component I. French Canadian managers at all hierarchical levels hold much more strongly than do their English Canadian counterparts to an essentially Theory X orientation toward others in the workplace, believing that a person's basic predisposition is to avoid work, to be indifferent to the challenges that work in an organization offers, and to slacken his efforts at the first opportunity. Much more than their French Canadian colleagues, English Canadians are inclined toward a Theory Y conception of the attitudes and characteristics of others in the work setting,

expressing more trust in others by considering that people are intrinsically interested in making a contribution to the organization, and willing to involve themselves centrally in the pursuit of organizational goals. Thus both in terms of these attitudes toward authority and its value in the workplace, and in their basic ideology about others, the two ethnic groups are, in effect, "worlds apart". They view their own status position as management members of the organization in different terms and they diverge widely indeed in their perspectives on the motives and needs of their fellow members.

As shown by the model illustrated in Figure I on page 362 it was expected that this basically different philosophy of management held by the two groups would have a strong and direct bearing on their respective approaches to task accomplishment and to the consideration they would tend to show individuals involved in task performance. Indeed it was predicted that because of these basically different outlooks, French Canadian managers would be much more urgently preoccupied with the achievement of the immediate output goals, and would be much less considerate of the aspirations and feelings of others within the context of work (component II of the leadership model), than would be their English Canadian management counterparts. Briefly, it was felt that the French Canadian manager, fearful that his position of authority would be threatened if output norms were not achieved to the satisfaction of his superiors and distrusting the willingness of subordinates to produce on their own, would show a dominant concern for task achievement to the point of pressuring others to produce. The English Canadian manager, being less

authority-conscious, and more trusting of the concern of others for task achievement, would focus more on upholding and carefully monitoring standards and deadlines, but would do so without being so intensely preoccupied with this problem as to create a climate whereby a sense of urgency with regard to output permeates the atmosphere. For similar reasons, French Canadians would take much less into account in the work setting the needs and sensitivities of subordinates than would the English Canadian manager (the Consideration of Others aspect of component II).

As expected on the basis of the dynamics of the model, the research findings for Component II did indeed generally follow this predicted pattern. French Canadian managers, in contrast to English Canadian managers, showed a much more dominant concern and preoccupation with the attainment of the gross output or volume productivity aspect of Task Orientation, even to the point of driving subordinates hard to fulfill output norms, while English Canadian managers showed a much less predominant concern with regard to the realization of those work norms. On the other hand, English Canadian managers viewed their role as task leaders (much more than did the French Canadian managers) in terms of "target-setting" and "goal structuring" so that tasks would be maximally accomplished, and much more than their French Canadian colleagues, expressed willingness to encourage and support those subordinates who found it difficult to keep up.

One of the really important findings in the analysis of the Task

Orientation dimension was that the framework set by the French Canadian manager for task accomplishment was the attainment of minimum standards for everybody in terms of output. He tends to see his role as that of an overseer whose primary responsibility is to make certain that every subordinate reaches this minimum standard most of the time. He is not basically oriented toward the attainment of really high levels of task performance. In settling for a uniform minimum, the French Canadian manager, as we have seen, functions in a manner typical of those who have a minimum of identification with the organization's goals but who are fearful that unless they fulfill basic output requirements, their job will be in jeopardy. This interpretation of the French Canadian manager's approach to task achievement is, as explained on page 440 of this Chapter, characteristic of the tendency of non-motivated hourly-rated workers to restrict production quotas to minimum levels and to rigidly enforce them, to produce "just enough but not too much". The English Canadian manager, on the other hand, is less concerned that everyone, at all times, achieves the minimum output level, but is much more concerned about maximizing the performance of subordinates, and seeing to it that the work climate is one which emphasizes a continued excellence in performance, one which encourages subordinates to improve and progress in their jobs.

The research findings for the second attitude dimension of Component II, Consideration of Others, once again clearly substantiated the predictions based on the dynamics of the leadership model. French Canadian managers expressed a much less understanding attitude toward

subordinates' feelings while the English Canadian management group expressed much more consideration of others in terms of sensitivity to their feelings and needs at work. Paradoxically, the French Canadian group showed more concern for broad and abstract principles of good human relations in the workplace, a result indicating that "in theory", French Canadians were more considerate of others than were their English Canadian counterparts, but in recommended "practice" in face-to-face relationships within the work setting, the French Canadian group, as noted, adhered much more to the "hard line" in dealing with subordinates. The general concern of the French Canadian for the happiness and well-being of people in the broad context of social relationships at work, combined with his strict and disciplinarian approach to subordinates in his work-related interaction with them suggested a strong paternalistic leaning on the part of the French Canadian, one that was not shared by his English Canadian colleague, who was inclined to be more straightforward and businesslike in his dealings with subordinates.

As indicated by the dynamics of the leadership model, it was expected that there would be a connection between the attitudes expressed in terms of Component II and those revealed in Component III. Certainly the French Canadian, who is preoccupied with productive output even at the expense of the feelings of subordinates (task orientation), and who strongly adheres to a disciplinarian approach in his face-to-face relationships with them on the job (consideration of others), would likely withhold, rather than foster opportunities for them to involve themselves in departmental decisions. In contrast, the English Canadian management group,

being more goal than pressure-oriented in their approach to task accomplishment, and expressing a great deal more consideration in their attitudes toward those who report to them, would be more likely to wish to include them in the decision process and to delegate at least some decision responsibilities to them.

On the basis of these same dynamic interrelationships, it was felt that French Canadian managers would adopt and hold to a style of management which emphasizes close control and regulation of subordinates' work, while English Canadians would be inclined much more toward developing a leadership climate in which subordinates were afforded, within reason, a good measure of autonomy and freedom from rigid and continuous surveillance.

Once more, the research findings confirmed this expectation for Component III. French Canadian managers did indeed favour, much more than English Canadian managers, a strongly controlling form of management style, being less inclined to involve subordinates in decision-making, and being much less favourably disposed toward delegating to them the responsibility for handling tasks and decisions on their own. They were also to some extent more inclined to check and audit the details of subordinates' work.

It should be noted in this synopsis of the research findings that the wide differences between the two groups with respect to the attitude dimensions in all three components were similar across all the

organizational levels in the large companies dealt with (the only exception being Scale M of consideration of others, where differences, though significant, were relatively small), so that the divergence in the outlooks of the two ethnic groups was in fact amazingly consistent and certainly not confined to particular companies or echelons. In short, the differences found were indeed cultural ones.

The research results also indicated that the French Canadian, working in his own cultural milieu in industry (company 2), holds to substantially the same philosophy of management, outlook toward task and people and the same management style as does the French Canadian in the bicultural setting. The only exception to this striking similarity between the French Canadian managers in the two different industrial environments is the fact that the lower-level French Canadian manager tends to be less exclusively output-oriented, and tends to favour less the use of pressure tactics to get the work out, than does his French Canadian counterpart in English Canadian companies (a pattern of results explained on page 425 of this chapter).

Thus, the strong and impelling factor at work in determining the French Canadian's attitudes toward all three components of the leadership process is definitely a cultural one, the profound identification with the value system operating within the context of French Canadian society. It is not the outcome of his being a member of a bicultural, English Canadian dominated industrial organization.

Having summarized the research findings in terms of the leadership model presented, there remains to be discussed an important consideration in order to arrive at a better understanding of the important role that culture plays in crystallizing the leadership style of its members as described in these findings: the impact of a superior's management style on his subordinates. This requires an extension of the leadership model already outlined. It was not the intention of the researchers to present the view that the leadership process, as described in this model, is a simple, cause and effect unfolding phenomenon, having as its source solely the cultural antecedents of the leader. It is true that culture, in the manner described in the model, does play a major role in determining a manager's perception of his position of authority and contributes in this manner to the development of his personal conception of human work motivation, which in turn, determines his management style as we have previously indicated. However, the superior's management style also acts upon the attitudes of his subordinates, and what is more important as we shall see later, the resulting attitudes and corresponding behaviour of subordinates will, in turn, influence in some way the personal management philosophy of the superior. It is to this subordinate group, and to the role these subordinates play in the leadership process in industry that we shall now turn our attention.

We have seen that managers of the two ethnic groups have basically different styles of management. As amply demonstrated in the report of the research findings, the French Canadian, much more than the English Canadian, evinces a style which is characterized by close surveillance

of subordinates in which the involvement of subordinates in decision-making is tightly constricted. The English Canadian manager favours much more the notion that subordinates should be given a measure of autonomy and freedom in doing their jobs, and is more inclined to interest and involve subordinates in departmental decisions. These two divergent styles stem, as we have seen, from basically different conceptualizations flowing, in turn, from essentially different personal management philosophies which the two ethnic groups bring to and incorporate in the work setting of large organizations.

What we have not as yet sufficiently dealt with, however, is the profound impact that these management styles inevitably have on subordinates, as well as its repercussions on the leadership process itself. The nature and strength of this impact is in fact a function of both, the style of management of his superior and the attitudes and behaviour of the subordinate himself, particularly the degree to which he himself is motivated to perform effectively within the work setting. If the individual is intrinsically motivated, having integrated his needs and aspirations with the demands of the organization, then a style of management which stems from an authority-centered, basically mistrusting approach, one which acts to control him closely and keep him out of the picture in the processing of decision-making, will undoubtedly have the effect of de-motivating him, and cause him to rapidly lose interest not only in his job, but even in the attainment of essential objectives of the organization. The impact of a more democratic style of management

will, of course, be quite different. If basically trusted, and given some autonomy and freedom to perform his tasks, and if consulted in decision-making, his already strong motivation will be sustained and even enhanced within this kind of regime.

If the subordinate enters the industrial scene relatively unmotivated, that is, essentially indifferent and apathetic, or even in conflict with the tasks and objectives of an enterprise, then again the effects of these two styles of management will be markedly different. An autocratic, strongly controlling form of management would undoubtedly solidify his apathy or indifference, further de-motivating him and increasing the intensity of his feelings of conflict. On the other hand, a management climate which permits the expression of his views and ideas and which encourages him to work on his own will very likely have the effect, over time, of arousing and developing his work motivation. It will, in short, gradually stimulate him to develop an intrinsic interest in dealing with the problems, tasks and issues that take place around him, without his demanding an external reward for every effort he puts forth. Thus the form of one's management style can offset or reinforce a subordinate's existing tendency to integrate himself into the organization. Likewise, it can offset or reinforce a subordinate's indifference, apathy and even hostility toward life in an industrial organization.

Whichever the case may be, the factor that makes this impact so crucial is that the attitudes and accompanying behaviour of a subor-

dinate stemming from a superior's particular management style will, in turn, have a direct repercussion on that superior's personal management philosophy which, as we have seen, determines the management style he utilizes. Indeed, the subordinate's reaction will invariably act back on his superior's personal inclination toward one or the other style, serving to crystallize it more and more. Thus, the superior, whose style is basically authoritarian and who is skeptical of a subordinate's intrinsic interest in work, will, as we have seen, discourage the intrinsic interest of the subordinate in the tasks and objectives of the unit if that subordinate already possesses this interest, or, increase his apathy, indifference, or even aggressive behaviour if he already lacks motivation and interest. In observing, which he invariably will, ever-diminishing interest or increasing "laissez-faire" behaviour on the part of his subordinates, he will obviously conclude that his Theory X philosophy toward subordinates is in fact confirmed, and he will hold all the more firmly to this conviction and its resulting style of management.

The superior who evinces a more positive, trusting outlook toward subordinates, manifesting itself in a more democratic managerial style in the workplace, will encourage the intrinsic interest of subordinates who lack it, and enhance the interests of those who already are identified with the tasks and objectives of the unit. The more democratic manager, gaining positive feedback from his own management style, will equally be convinced that his thinking and approach is a sound and correct one, and will thus hold to this style all the more firmly.

Thus, in superior-subordinate relationships, a feedback cycle such as the one described, is invariably operative, in that the attitudes and behaviour characteristic of the management style of the superior act on the attitudes and behaviour of the subordinates. The subsequent reactions of the subordinate to the style of management serve in turn to crystallize the superior's leadership style even further. In effect, the manager's style in his approach to subordinates tends to take the form of a "self-fulfilling prophecy" in that the manager's predisposition toward others and the way he leads them tends to be reinforced by the impact resulting from his interactions with them. This impact and repercussion effect as described above is one that holds true in any organization within an economic or non economic-oriented society and constitutes a fourth dimension in the leadership model as presented in Figure 2.

This figure shows the addition of Component IV, which encompasses the behavioural impact which the superior's style has on the attitudes and actions of the subordinate in the workplace, determining in very large part whether that subordinate's behaviour will be integrated or non-integrated with the demands and challenges of the work situation (dimensions 7 and 8 within component IV). Thus, the superior's personal philosophy of management (component I), whether it be authoritarian or democratic in nature¹, will directly influence (arrow a) his conceptualization

¹ It is not the intention of the researchers to imply that these two styles of management are the only ones which can be, or are, employed in industry today, but they constitute the really crucial differentiation for the purposes of this study.

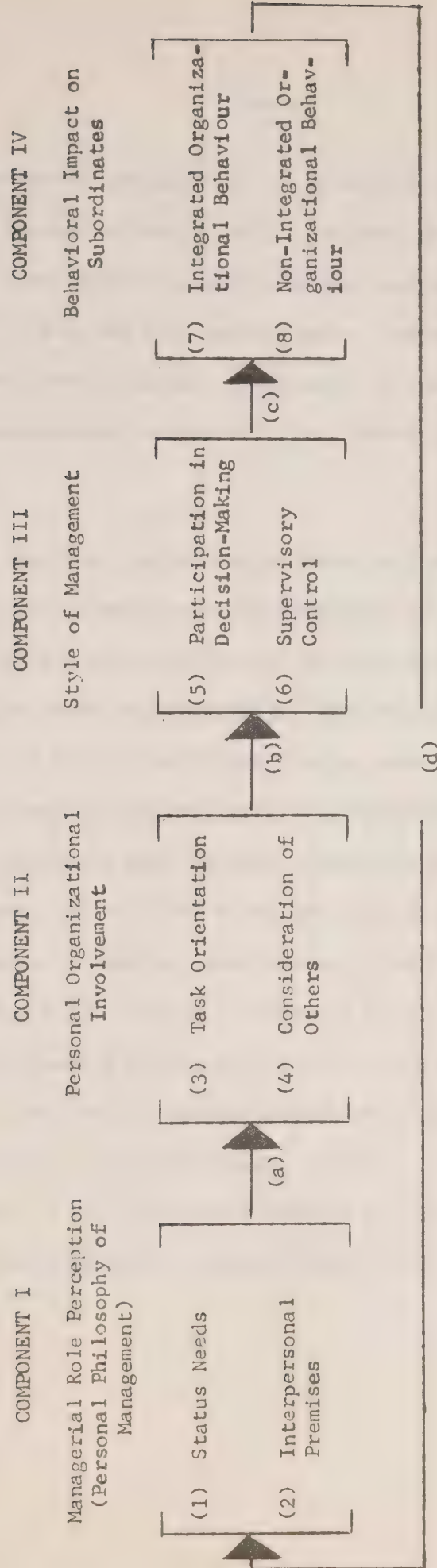


Figure 2: Schematic Representation of the Leadership Model showing the Four Components of the Leadership Process in an Organization.

of tasks, and people involved in these tasks, as represented in Component II. This conceptualization will, in turn, determine (arrow b) the particular administrative aspect of the management style he adopts and adheres to in dealing with subordinates (component III), which in turn, as we have just discussed, determines (arrow c), or has a direct impact on the behavioural reaction of the subordinate, as shown in Component IV.

This reaction, as we have pointed out, will tend to take the form of de-motivated, non-integrated behaviour if the management style is authoritarian, and very likely will be more motivated, integrated behaviour if this style is democratic. The superior as a person, then, depending upon the kind of individual he is, generates through his managerial style, integrated or non-integrated behaviour in his subordinates. Figure 2 also contains a most crucial element in the leadership process: the feedback loop, (arrow d) by which the subordinate's reaction to the management style acts back on, confirms and crystallizes the superior's personal philosophy for dealing with others in the organizational setting. This confirmation and further solidification of his style, again, acts to further confirm his conceptualization of tasks and people, and so on in a continuous, self-generating sequence. This dynamic, self-generating aspect of the leadership process is, as we have mentioned previously, characteristic of superior-subordinate relationships in any society.

It is important to realize, however, that the superior is not the only force operating to elicit integrated or non-integrated organizational behaviour on the part of subordinates. The culture within which the leadership process operates is also a primary source of influence, creating and sustaining powerful forces which in themselves serve to standardize to a considerable extent this leadership process in superior-subordinate relationships within a unicultural society. Within such a society, both the superior and the subordinate are strongly affected by these cultural factors. Since our primary concern is a study of the leadership process involving members of the two principal Canadian ethnic groups, let us focus our attention upon the nature of this process as it functions in these two societies, the French Canadian one, which is an essentially authoritarian, and as we have seen in Chapter IV, a relatively non-economic oriented one, and the English Canadian one, which is more egalitarian in nature, and much more materialistic and economic-oriented.

The French Canadian culture, not being economic-oriented, yet being strongly authoritarian in its value system, inculcates in its members a philosophy of management which strongly emphasizes the status of one's authority position and fosters a Theory X type of conception of the motivation of subordinates, leading to an autocratic form of management style as we have seen in this chapter. With respect to the French Canadian subordinate, he typically enters business relatively "cold" from an essentially non-industrialized or economic-oriented culture, and having no "built-in" tendency to accept as natural and good the pursuit of the economic goals of the enterprise, would tend to develop strong feelings

of self-devaluation due to the tensions and strains generated by the deeply-rooted personal conflicts he experiences as a responsible member of the organization (see the research results of conflict scales A, B, C, D, E, F and G of chapter IV). In short, the French Canadian's frame of reference at the very onset of his occupational life, in his subordinate role then, is simply not conducive to his becoming sufficiently attracted to business to the extent that he would consider a career in industry as truly a way of life. Thus, the chances that his behaviour would, in fact, "square" with a Theory X conception of behaviour would be strong indeed. Since the French Canadian subordinate would not be identified with the mission of the organization he joined, he would likely do less rather than more, and would show more apathy than would his English Canadian counterpart.

Thus, we are confronted with a situation in which culture engenders non-integrated behaviour on the part of the subordinate by instilling in him personal values which are not integrated with the economic function of industry and which are based on an authoritarian ideology which is not conducive to the development of team management in organizations. Culture simultaneously instills the same values in the superior and the dynamics of the leadership process begin to operate. The superior's authoritarian style generates more non-integrated subordinate behaviour which would, in turn, act back on the superior, further confirming his personal philosophy of management, consolidating his management style, and leading him to further engender non-integrated behaviour on the part of the subordinate. Thus culture, by acting directly

on both ends, the input and output components (I and IV), tends to crystallize and solidify the whole leadership process, constantly building-up forces of resistance to change toward a more integrated work pattern. The dynamic interplay of cultural forces and those existing within the leadership process itself are shown in Figure 3, in which arrow X represents the forces of culture that bear upon the manager-superior and arrow Y, those that are directed toward the manager-subordinate.

Consistent with this graphic representation, the English Canadian culture, being much more economic-oriented, and essentially egalitarian in its value system, implants in its members who go on to management positions in industry, a more Theory Y type of philosophy with respect to subordinates, and a more democratic style of management, one which encourages integrated behaviour among its members. With respect to the English Canadian subordinate, his behaviour at the onset of his career in business would be more strongly integrated with the organization he joins, since his culture has taught him the value of a career in business, and defined success for him largely in terms of advancement up the hierarchy in a business organization. He would, from the start, accept and even derive intrinsic satisfaction from the challenge of task achievement that the organization offers him, and in most cases, would be relatively conflict-free with regard to the economic goals of business (see the research findings of Chapter IV). He would, in short, be an economic-oriented individual, and his more integrated organizational behaviour would act to confirm the more Theory Y management philosophy

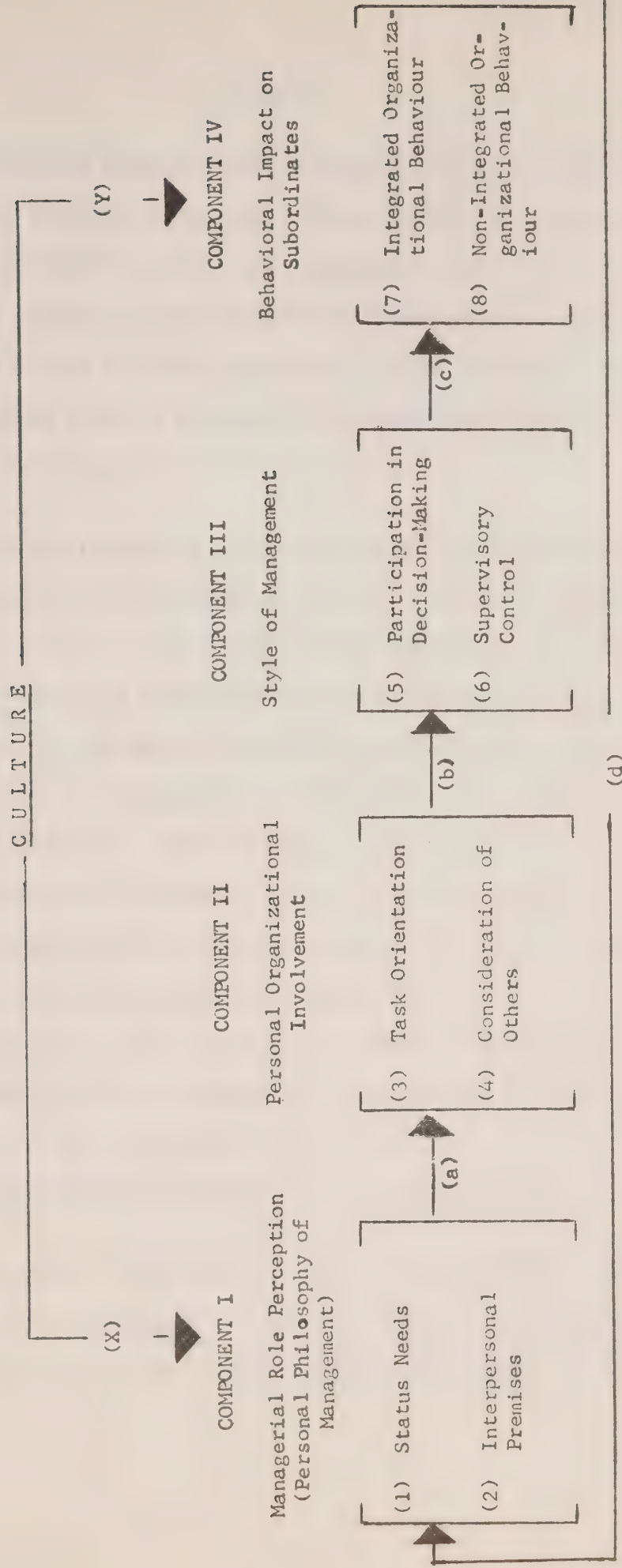


Figure 3: Schematic Representation of the Leadership Model showing the Effects of Culture on Four Components of the Leadership Process in an Organization.

of his superior and further consolidate that superior's style of management in interactions between the two, and thus lead the manager-superior to further strengthen the integrated behaviour of the subordinate. The feedback cycle would thus be perpetuated, and the leadership process firmly set and crystallized. In this manner, the English Canadian culture tends to generate and re-generate integrated behaviour among its subordinates.

The description of the forces at work in the interaction between superiors and subordinates is not, of course, applicable to everyone. There are in all situations, such as these, many individual exceptions. The point being made here is that culture exerts a powerful influence (in the manner described) on the majority of organizational members, serving to standardize and crystallize the leadership process among groups of people. What we wish to emphasize for the reader is that the ultimate cause of integrated or non-integrated organization behaviour is culture, while the "instrumental" cause is the manager-superior's management philosophy and accompanying leadership style. Culture thus plays the most predominant role in determining whether the behaviour of organizational members will be integrated to the goals or objectives of that organization, or not. The role of the superior is that of a reinforcing agent, strengthening and perpetuating the influence of culture.

In view of this, the fact that a French Canadian superior would hold to a Theory X conception of people's attitudes and behaviour is most understandable. There is, in short, much justification for the French

Canadian manager's belief that people in industry are basically indifferent to work and to the successful fulfillment of the organization's objectives. In addition, the French Canadian superior, being himself a member of the same culture, would have the same basic attitudes toward work. Being also less identified with the economic mission of an organization and considerably in conflict with respect to his personal values in the goals of industry (as shown in chapter IV), he would naturally tend to be keenly sensitive to these tendencies in others. Their attitudes and behaviour in the work setting would then tend to confirm (rather than modify) his negative, skeptical attitude toward others in the work setting as reflected in the Theory X conceptualization of people held by the French Canadian superior, a conceptualization which the research findings clearly show does describe accurately the French Canadian frame of reference.

This strongly-held negative outlook on others in the workplace is partly due to the French Canadian manager's observations of his cultural colleagues in the workplace, and partly due to this "projection" of his own characteristics. But in addition, it is due to his strongly-felt need to believe that others are slack and indifferent toward work, because this belief, in effect, justifies and satisfies the high value he places on the omnipotence of his authority and person in his dealings with subordinates, a value which again, he has internalized from his culture. Thus, a Theory X French Canadian manager is, in effect, different from a Theory X English Canadian manager. The English Canadian Theory X manager, in believing, for example that most people are out to do as little work as possible, or that people are lazy by nature, does not hold a theory which is consistent with

the human nature as it exists in an economic-oriented and industrialized culture. It is, however, a theory which does tend to be consistent with human nature in relation to industrial work within the context of a non-economic-oriented, non-industrialized society. This is precisely why the differences found to exist between the two ethnic groups in this study are so large. In short, there is much more justification for a French Canadian manager to adhere to a Theory X conception of human work motivation than there is for an English Canadian manager to do so. The fact remains however that, regardless of culture, a Theory X orientation will inevitably lead to non-integrated organizational behaviour. This consideration could be a partial explanation for the fact that so few French Canadian managers reach the top of the management hierarchy.

The impact of these divergent leadership styles on communication and coordination between the two groups in a bicultural organization is not a difficult one to imagine. The subordinate who enters such an organization would encounter two highly divergent leadership regimes which have widely different effects on people working within it. In dealing with French Canadian and English Canadian superiors in the conduct of his tasks, he would be exposed to an organizational climate which might best be described as a "double standard" of management within a single enterprise.

The French Canadian and English Canadian manager-superior would not see eye-to-eye on the personnel policies of the organization, on methods of training and developing subordinates for future responsibilities, on the

way departmental decisions should be dealt with, or even on the way in which departmental tasks are to be allocated and performed by subordinate members in that department. In short, one is safe in saying that managers of the two ethnic groups would diverge widely on the development, deployment and utilization of human resources in the workplace and therefore would have little or no common base or frame of reference for exchanging ideas about these crucial matters. This, in all likelihood, would be the case because they simply do not have a common philosophy of management, that is, a common perception of their role as managers. As we have clearly seen, the French Canadian manager, because of the degree to which he has personalized the authority aspect of his role and because of the resultant strong emotionally-based status orientation he brings to bear in his relations with others, tends to view colleagues or peers in the workplace with a considerable degree of mistrust, and tends, in interactions with them, to act defensively whenever he perceives any direct or implied threat to his own image of omnipotence as the holder of a position of responsibility. This "aura of infallibility" with which he tends to surround himself, and the view he has of others, would act as a strong communication barrier, and in his interactions with his English Canadian peers, there would likely be, among this latter group, a pervading feeling that they just cannot "get through" to him for frank, informal and open discussions of departmental or organizational problems.

The differential level of trust the two groups have toward others in the workplace would further intensify the communication problems between them. These feelings would seldom be expressed because of the touchy

nature of ethnic relations, and because the mistrust French Canadians feel toward others could not possibly be understood by the English Canadian, who simply has not been "brought up this way". Thus, the English Canadian manager could not enter into the kind of face-to-face interaction with them that he would like to have, consistent with his management philosophy. He would in short be frustrated in this kind of situation, being more inclined than the French Canadian to establish a climate of mutual trust and confidence in all of his relationships, thereby "freeing" lateral channels of communication.

One can see that those higher in the hierarchy would encounter difficulty in coordinating the efforts of managers of the two ethnic groups, and would in all likelihood "have their hands full" seeing to it they effectively communicated and coordinated with each other in dealing with tasks and projects in which both were involved. Indeed, in cases where the French Canadian and English Canadian manager were allocated responsibility for tasks and projects, there would in all likelihood be a marked lack of uniformity between the two on the follow-through of basic policies, particularly those involving personnel matters because of the basically different managerial styles employed. Simply to illustrate the types of problems which in our opinion could transpire, the French Canadian manager might hesitate much more than the English Canadian manager to communicate technical information to his English Canadian colleague for fear that, if this information were not "perfect", he would lose stature as a manager in the eyes of others.

In addition to these problems in lateral communication between the two ethnic groups of managers at the same organizational level, the problems of vertical communication in the hierarchy could be difficult ones. The French Canadian superior in a bicultural setting, because of the climate he would create with subordinates would, as we have seen, tends to reinforce the non-integrated organizational behaviour of French Canadian subordinates, adding to, rather than offsetting the apathy and indifference or negative attitudes toward tasks and goals which, as we have seen in Chapter IV, are ultimately based on the conflicts engendered in him by his culture. Thus, the strong barriers to communication which already tend to exist in an authoritarian climate in which the indifferent subordinate is not motivated to keep the boss informed on important work problems would be further increased. As a result, the French Canadian manager, lacking sufficient information to meet even minimum standards of output he has set, would further pressure subordinates, resulting conceivably in hostility on the part of the subordinate, leading in turn to indirect aggressive acts, such as the withholding of information.

Furthermore, this climate created by the French Canadian superior would, as we have discussed, act to depress or reduce the existing integrated organizational behaviour of his English Canadian subordinate, if members of this culture were included in his work group. The status-orientation and accompanying mistrust on the part of the French Canadian superior would act to disillusion and frustrate the English Canadian subordinate who

because of his cultural background, would expect a good measure of delegated responsibility for tasks and decisions, and be left within reasonable limits, on his own to tackle and finalize the tasks allocated to him. Again, he would have difficulty in convincing his French Canadian superior to let him function in this way. Thus, it would be difficult indeed for the French Canadian manager to develop a strongly-motivated and cohesive work team within this kind of regime, in a period of technological development when team work is almost an essential prerequisite for effective task accomplishment.

The English Canadian superior in a bicultural setting would also be placed in a difficult, but somewhat different kind of situation. His freer, more democratic approach to subordinates would, as we have outlined, act to enhance and reinforce the integrated organizational behaviour of his English Canadian subordinates¹. With respect to his French Canadian subordinates, if they formed part of his work team, it would seem, at first glance that this kind of leadership climate would act to offset and largely overcome the non-integrated behaviour of these subordinates, because the more democratic, trusting regime created would foster high intrinsic job interest

¹ It should be pointed out that we are discussing the behaviour of the majority of people in these situations and not particular individuals. There are, of course, always exceptions, such as the French Canadian with a highly democratic style of management, and the English Canadian who is highly authoritarian in his style. The fact should also be noted that the terms "democratic" and "authoritarian" are relative terms, with the authoritarian style being somewhat different in the French Canadian culture than in the English Canadian culture, and the same would be true of the democratic styles in the two cultures.

in any subordinate¹, including a French Canadian one.

In the opinion of the researchers, this would not likely be the case. We have seen that this non-integrated behaviour of the French Canadian subordinate is very profoundly culture-based, and is a direct manifestation of conflict which he implicitly feels exists between the pursuit of a career in business and other crucial realms of personal concern to him, that is: family life, individual dignity and worth, the obligations he feels toward society and his cultural identity (shown in the results of Chapter IV). In the truest sense then, the English Canadian superior would be "bucking" culture in his attempt to inspire the French Canadian subordinate to take a strong and impelling interest in the progress of the department and company. He would be attempting to encourage an interest which is simply not there, one which in fact the French Canadian deeply fears because of the conflictual state he finds himself in with regard to the norms of his culture, as we have previously seen. It should be pointed out here, that the manager in the leadership process can only act as a catalyst. He can only create a climate which will sustain and

¹ This point was brought out on page 486 in the context of a unicultural organization or society which is, in fact, industrialized or economic-oriented. In this context, intrinsic work motivation tends to have already been inculcated in most subordinates when they enter the business world. Thus, if subordinates within an economic-oriented culture are found to be apathetic, it is very likely due to the leadership style of the superior, and a change from a more authoritarian to a more democratic style usually results in eliminating the barriers that prevented the development of a latent desire to identify and be strongly involved with the achievement of organizational goals. This particular point has been extremely well-documented in a multitude of studies of industrial leadership conducted on the North American continent.

augment the involvement of subordinates if it already exists, and in so doing, generate integrated organizational behaviour. The basic motivation of the subordinate to involve himself in the organization's tasks and goals must already be there if the superior is to have any positive effect. Culture, in short, provides the "seeds" for the attitudes and behaviour the subordinate brings to the work setting. The manager, though a crucial and central figure in the leadership process in any enterprise, can only provide the proper climate for these seeds to grow and flourish.

The application of remedial action to overcome these problems is, of course, no simple matter. Yet, as we have discussed at length in the summary of Chapter IV, the direct avenue to the solution is the development of an industrialized culture among French Canadians, one which is economic-oriented and one that engenders in the mentality of its members a personal acceptance of and strong intrinsic interest in the growth and development of industrial enterprises, and a strong motivation to seek out and pursue a career in this realm as a way of actualizing one's potential. This can be done, as we have seen in Chapter IV, only if the deep-seated conflicts the French Canadian experiences in industrial life are confronted and dealt with in an open and frank manner. These are the key issues. This problem cannot be solved by solely attempting to develop management skills through the use of coaching or human relations training. With respect to human relations training, in almost all cases, it fails in its mission to bridge the gap between the two groups in terms of the adoption of effective

leadership styles, because it fails to recognize the existence of two distinct philosophies of management along cultural lines. Management development programs are very often intentionally oriented that way because of the embarrassing nature of the problem. There is understandably a natural resistance to discuss human relations problems in terms of a "French problem" or an "English problem". Yet training programs, as we have recommended in Chapter IV, must be so set up and conducted so that they actively encourage the French Canadian to totally confront himself with his problems of adaptation to the world of work, to face and attempt to cope with the conflicts he sees between industrial life and his personal values and his accompanying devaluation of the economic function of business. Only in this manner will these programs provide him with a chance to integrate his values with the mission of industrial organizations.

Again, as we have pointed out, this opportunity cannot be provided in training programs which treat the French Canadian as though he were an English Canadian. That is, the English Canadian, who is Theory X-oriented, is so because of his personal characteristics much more than because of his culture. He likely has a stronger "built-in" motive to change or modify his views about people than does the French Canadian because he inherently wants to integrate his behaviour with the system. He is on the alert for more effective ways to function maximally in the organization, and is therefore more "primed" for change. The French Canadian, in contrast, holds to a Theory X approach to others which, as we have discussed previously, is culture-based and which, in effect, faithfully reflects his up-bringing.

Not being essentially economic-oriented, he cannot to the same degree, as his English Canadian counterpart, incorporate into his own value system the primary goals of industrial organizations and as a result, industrial work does not have the same valued meaning for him. He cannot reconcile his role as a responsible member of an organization with the concept of himself as a useful member of society, a responsible family man, or with the kinds of professional, altruistic activities that he and his culture value most.

In short, the work the French Canadian is actively engaged in does not meet the basic social and psychological needs that his culture has given him. Industrial activity has little meaning for him because personal growth within an industrial organization cannot possibly enhance personal feelings of self-worth or his self-esteem. On the contrary, industrial success can only serve to detract from the realization of peace-of-mind that all individuals strive for and obtain in an environment which is compatible with one's self-image. This is the basic conflict that the French Canadian must face head-on and solve above all others, if he is to be a member of a management team which fosters integrated organizational behaviour in others. Only then will it be possible to train him to develop more effective managerial skills, for only then will he have a good reason for doing so. Until this is done, most attempts to develop his managerial skills will not have any real meaning for him and will only tend to be interpreted by him as a subtle form of exploitation on the part of English Canadians to increase production at the expense of basic human satisfaction.

Chapter VI

Work Motivation

In this chapter, a model for the study of work motivation is briefly outlined, followed by a description of the twenty work motives investigated in this study. A discussion of some major problems and issues involved in the conceptualization, measurement and interpretation of work motivation is then given, followed by a description of the measurement techniques and method of analysis employed in this study. The research results and interpretation of these results are then presented, and the chapter is concluded with a brief summary of the research findings.

Objectives and General Design

Rationale

The basic objective of the study of this dimension of industrial leadership was to determine how French Canadian and English Canadian managers in large corporations would compare in terms of the relative strength of the work motives which these groups presently possess. It was of interest to ascertain, in other words, the degree of importance each group attached to a fairly large number of needs relevant to one's work and career, by determining to what degree individuals expressed a desire for specific work incentives.

As discussed in the introductory chapter of this report (pages 13 to 14), it was felt that the needs these two ethnic groups seek to satisfy most in the workplace would influence the way in which members of the two groups at managerial levels coordinated with each other in the performance of tasks assigned them, since integration of the efforts of the two groups would require some degree of communality in their

respective work or career motives. It was also felt that the degree of compatibility of these motives with the requirements of the organization would play a significant role in determining the kind of climate these managers would create in such important areas as the motivation and development of subordinates.

However, to have conducted an exhaustive or elaborate investigation of work motivation would have been beyond the scope of the present study. Our major concern in the research study was an analysis of the basic identification of the two groups with the goals of business organizations (chapter IV), and a study of their attitudes toward the leadership process in these organizations (chapter V). The overriding interest in the present chapter was thus the degree to which the relative priority assigned to work motives by the two ethnic groups would serve to explain or better understand the research findings of the previous two chapters.

Several criteria guided the researchers in their selection of the work motives to be included in the study. First, it was considered important to include motives which had direct relevance for work in business organizations, so that attention was directed toward motives which referred to such factors as job security and decision responsibility, while such motives as physiological or biological ones were excluded because of their remote relationship to work in an industrial organization. Secondly, it was essential to include a broad and relatively comprehensive set of important work motives in the study, subject of course to limitations imposed by time factors. Thirdly, and of central importance, was the

necessity to include those work-related motives which would be relevant to a comparative study of the two ethnic groups. Hence, a few motives which might not ordinarily be used in a study of one ethnic group, such as say English Canadians, were included because it was felt that they were important to members of the other ethnic group, French Canadian, and vice-versa.

Having these criteria as guides, the next step was to make the actual selection of motives to include in the study. While there has been considerable research, both empirical and descriptive, conducted on work motivation in recent years, in the view of the researchers, one of the most realistic and useful models for the study of motivation has been that of Maslow (1954). He has identified five basic need systems which act to organize and direct the individual's behaviour and which he viewed as being hierarchical in terms of social worth or value. These need systems, (in ascending order within the hierarchy) were: Physiological needs (hunger, thirst, etc.), Safety or Security needs (protection from threat and danger, and the striving for a safe and orderly environment), Social needs (belonging, association and affection), Esteem needs (status, recognition and self-respect) and Self-Actualization needs (the realization of one's potentialities). Only the latter four need systems were of interest to the researchers because of their more central relevance to the study of work motivation. They were adopted by the researchers as the basic classification scheme for the work motives dealt with in this research study.

The problem of time and questionnaire length limited the exhaustiveness with which these need systems could be assessed, and therefore restricted the number of statements which could be included within each system. It was decided that as many as possible but a minimum of three statements should be included to tap each separate need system. The resulting scheme, the one used to compare the two ethnic groups on work motives, is outlined below, with the categories of needs broadly defined,¹ and the statements employed to study the Motivation dimension listed under each category. It should be noted that the need statements listed below are phrased in comparative terms because of the type of questionnaire instructions given to respondents.²

(1) Security Needs: the need for the maintenance of a stable environment and for protection from deprivation and threat.

- (a) "Have more assurance that I can remain on this job as long as I want to."
- (b) "Have more definite and regular working hours."
- (c) "Have a better social security plan at work (Pension, life insurance or health insurance plans)."
- (d) "Have fewer worries, tensions and troubles."
- (e) "Have fewer people to please, being less exposed to criticism."

1

These definitions were taken, with minor revisions, from the description of Maslow's need hierarchy provided by McGregor (1960).² The rationale for these instructions and the comparative form of phrasing of the statements are explained in the Measurement Technique Employed section of this chapter, page 527.

It can be seen that within this category, the needs for a stable, structured and secure environment are tapped by Statements(a) and (b), the avoidance of economic deprivation and adversity is reflected in Statement (c) and "psychological" security is the concern of Statement(d). The latter statement is a rather inclusive one, in the sense that worries and troubles could stem from many sources, including the possibility that one might lose one's job (statement a) or that one's health and retirement are not adequately covered (statement c). Statement(e) reflects the need to avoid or reduce the feeling of insecurity in one's job from being "on the spot" or under the critical scrutiny of others in the workplace.

(2) Social Needs: the need for belonging, association and the giving and receiving of friendship.

- (a) "Have to deal directly with fewer people in the company to get my work done."
- (b) "Have more possibility of treating people as human beings rather than as tools of production."
- (c) "Have more possibility of developing close friendships at work."

The statements included within this category are for the most part fairly obvious and straightforward reflections of social motivation. Statement (a) refers to the need to accomplish tasks in interaction with others. Statements (b) and (c) deal respectively with an awareness and concern for the dignity of one's fellow humans, and the need for affectional relationships with others.

(3) Esteem Needs: the need for status, recognition and appreciation from others.

- (a) "Have greater possibility of being appreciated for my work."
- (b) "Have more possibility of being appreciated for myself as a person."
- (c) "Have more attractive and pleasant physical work surroundings."
- (d) "Have more power and authority in my job."

Again, the statements included within this category are reasonably straightforward reflections of one's need for esteem. Needs are expressed for esteem and recognition not only for one's contribution or accomplishment in the work setting (statement a) but also to be considered of value and worth as a human being irrespective of accomplishment (statement b). Attractive work surroundings is included within the Esteem category because in any organization these tend to be, in fact, status symbols and only secondarily valued on purely esthetic grounds. The need for power and authority is indeed a pervasive and important one, since it reflects a recognition of the status of one's position and person -- a rather basic dimension of the manager's role in an organization. As such, it could perhaps have been included within the Security category, but it was felt that it reflected even more strongly the need for esteem in the eyes of others. In fact, recent research in the measurement of motivation (Veroff, 1958) has provided some evidence that power and the need for recognition or esteem are, in fact, highly correlated.

(4) Self-Actualization Needs: the need for realizing one's potentialities, for continued self-development and for creative endeavor.

- (a) "Have more opportunities for promotions."
- (b) "Have more efficient work equipment and installations."
- (c) "Opportunity to devote all my energies and personal resources to my work."
- (d) "Being given the responsibility (i.e. being held responsible) for a greater number of important decisions."
- (e) "Have more opportunity to specialize in the job area I like best (i.e. accounting, training, purchasing, maintenance, assembly operations etc.)."
- (f) "Have more opportunity to train and develop my subordinates for responsible positions in the company."

The statements included within this broad and very important need category were designed to reflect several different aspects of Self-Actualization. Statement (c) reflects the notion of the development of one's capacities and potentialities through work. The opportunity to attain expertise (statement e), to use one's knowledge and skill to contribute to the self-development of others (statement f), and the challenge of important responsibilities were seen by the researchers as intrinsic aspects of, and basic conditions for, self-fulfillment in work. Opportunity for promotion (statement a), one of the most powerful of motivating forces among business executives, though certainly bound up with many other needs in the individual, was nevertheless considered a necessary aspect of Self-Actualization, since it is widely recognized that more demanding and challenging work, and greater opportunity to develop one's skill capacities exists at

successively higher levels of the hierarchy in large and important business corporations. Promotion was thus considered a major avenue (though not the only one) for developing one's skills and potentialities. Statement (b) was considered of less importance but was considered worthy of inclusion, because in today's technology it would be difficult to imagine the full expression of one's talents in work without the adequate tools needed for performing one's job effectively.

Though the scheme outlined above represents the basic framework for classifying and grouping needs relevant to work, two additional incentives were included in the study because of their general relevance to any study of work motivation, namely: "receive a better salary" and "shorter working hours." It was considered worthwhile to include these two statements which reflect the individual's seeking an "economic pay-off", both in money terms (a better salary), and in terms of "return on investment" regarding the amount of time expended at work (shorter working hours). These two economic motives were included as an addition to the major need systems already outlined because their relationship to these need systems is, in fact, a tenuous and ambiguous one. The research of Herzberg (1959) and his associates indicates that little or nothing is known about the relationship of economic needs such as salary to other needs which seek satisfaction in the workplace, and in fact, the only reasonably sound conclusion that can be reached regarding money as an incentive in industry is that it appears to be a "dissatisfier" -- contributing to low over-all job satisfaction when it is lacking or inadequate, but contributing very little to high levels of job satisfaction when it is adequate.

Having described the classification of needs utilized in this study, as well as the statements included within each category of this classification, some comments are in order regarding problems in the conceptualization of motivation and its measurement, as well as some contentious and difficult issues related to the interpretation of the data derived in this study.

The first major problem confronting the researchers was the choice of the most appropriate way in which information about the importance of the various work motives could be obtained from the managers comprising our sample. Two ways present themselves for dealing with this problem. The first one consists of having the individual indicate the extent to which he wants to satisfy a particular work need. In other words, it is possible to have him specify how important he personally considers each separate work incentive to be, independently of any other one. The second way of approaching this problem is to have the individual indicate the extent to which he desires the satisfaction of each work motive in relation to the satisfaction of other work motives, that is, to have him specify how important a work motive is to him personally in relation to other work motives. Though the first method is used rather extensively, in the opinion of the researchers, the second one was considered clearly superior for reasons which will now be discussed.

The first method, in asking the individual to consider the importance of each motive taken singly, does not provide that individual with a realistic frame of reference for gauging his true feelings with

respect to the extent to which he wishes to satisfy each of these needs in the workplace, in short, with respect to their true importance to him. It is safe to say that all of the work motives included in the present study are important to satisfy in an absolute sense. It is difficult, for example, to conceive of anyone not wanting, as such, in an ideal setting, to "have the possibility of developing close friendships at work", or not desiring "fewer worries, tensions and troubles", or not considering as highly important "being given the responsibility for a greater number of important decisions". In an absolute sense or from an ideal point of view, then, all or most of these twenty work motives would likely be viewed as highly important by the majority of people. They would certainly attempt to satisfy each and everyone of them in their daily life if only they could, and when presenting these work incentives to them singly, in isolation from each other, they would in all likelihood indicate that, from this abstract and ideal viewpoint, most if not all of these incentives are very important to them. Indeed, it is most human for an individual to want to "have his cake and eat it too", and this specific approach of asking people to determine how important a given incentive is, without concomitantly urging him to evaluate that incentive in relation to many other generally important work motives, very strongly encourages him to give that particular type of unrealistic response.

The fact of the matter is that, in real life, an individual can never satisfactorily meet all work needs in any given setting. Situational factors always impose limitations on the number and kinds of incentives

that an individual can strive for. These constraints constantly force people to make a specific choice between the satisfaction of one work need over another, to compromise, to even compensate by pursuing more strongly than would ideally be the case a particular incentive because, in a specific situation, another highly valued incentive per se is unattainable. Thus an individual might ideally consider promotion and salary of the utmost importance, yet, in contrasting the two, strongly favour the latter simply because the former is virtually unattainable in real life.

Actually, many needs are to some extent incompatible, the satisfaction of some preventing to a certain degree the satisfaction of others. To use an example previously discussed, it is in all probability not possible to satisfy the need for gaining "more responsibility for a greater number of important decisions in work", yet at the same time have "fewer worries, tensions and troubles", since in business life, greater responsibility certainly tends automatically to bring more tension. Nor for that matter would it be likely to gain more responsibility and at the same time fully satisfy the need for security, such as expressed by the desire to "remain on this job as I want to", since greater responsibility involves greater risks and potential threat to one's position in the company. Thus, though the individual ideally may wish to satisfy all needs in the workplace, reality, as frustrating as this may be, dictates that this is most unlikely if not impossible to achieve.

To describe all of the complex interrelationships that are involved

in a study of work motivation would be beyond the scope of this research project. Suffice it to say that most, if not all, of the needs dealt with in this study, are, as such, highly important to the majority of people, all things being equal. As we have seen, however, all things are never actually equal. Thus, to have the individual consider work motives or incentives as separate entities in themselves, that is, in an absolute way, without simultaneously having in mind the attractiveness of other incentives, introduces elements of distortion which could seriously bias the results of such a study as this one. This problem would occur for the simple reason that the individual is being asked to express a judgment which is not consistent with the way in which he actually functions in his everyday life at work.

A more meaningful and realistic frame of reference is therefore provided when an individual is required to judge incentives in relation to each other rather than separately. To present them separately would very likely result in very small differences being shown in the importance an individual attaches to the satisfaction of these motives, a fact which, as we have seen, does not correspond to reality. The research results yielded by the use of a comparative procedure, more specifically the paired-comparison technique, would more clearly reveal differences in the importance the individual attaches to the satisfaction of work needs (if differences do in fact exist) because, by the very nature of the method, it requires him to make finer and more realistic discriminations in judgment.

Having dealt with the problem of choosing the most appropriate and realistic frame of reference by which managers would indicate the relative importance of the work motives investigated in this study, the next problem facing the researchers was the selection of the "benchmark" or basis for judgment in comparing these motives. It was deemed crucial to provide a benchmark which would have the same meaning to all the managers included in the study, so that their work motives could be compared on a common base.

While it would have been possible to have these individuals compare work motives in a general way, that is, to indicate the general importance of these motives relative to each other, this would, of course, have left open the problem that many different benchmarks for judging their importance would likely have been used among managers included in our study, so that it would have made meaningful contrasts between groups of these managers that much more difficult to make. For example, some managers might have used as a basis of judgment some past job which they had enjoyed, others might have used their job at some future time as the judgment reference, and so on. Besides, our interest was not actually in the general feelings of individuals with regard to the importance of work motives, but in their responses to these motives within the specific context of the industrial setting in which they are actively and presently engaged. As a result, it was felt that a consideration of these motives in relation to the individual's present job would constitute the most realistic basis for him to judge the relative importance or attractiveness of work incentives. Indeed, by focusing on one's present job a most

concrete and vital benchmark for judging the importance of incentives is provided, since one's job is undoubtedly the most important and relevant aspect of the work environment for any individual. It was also felt to be the most comparable or common base upon which to contrast the work motive patterns of managers. The fact that they held different jobs was not considered to be of consequence since the ethnic group comparisons were to be made between individuals who worked for the same company and who were also part of the same management level of that company. It would therefore be expected that the array of jobs would be fairly similar for each ethnic group, and that the specific functions or responsibilities associated with their jobs would vary little from one ethnic group to the other.

The approach taken in this study then, was to "anchor" the statements of needs presented previously in this chapter to the individual's own job, and to employ a questionnaire format in which the individual is asked to specify in which way he would change his job (if this were possible) in order to provide him with more of the kind of incentive he desired.¹ For example, if an individual manager indicated that he would prefer to change his job in a way which would provide him with

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The specific wording of the questionnaire directions can be found on page 2 of Appendix Q and is explained more fully in the Measurement Techniques Employed section which follows in this chapter. We are indebted to King (1957) for his permission to use this type of format and also for some of the need statements derived from his study.

"more power and authority" over all of the other nineteen possible changes offered him, then this was taken to mean that this incentive was to him the most important one of all. If he indicated that he would prefer to change his job so that he would have "fewer worries, tensions and troubles", and this change was preferred over all other changes except for "more power and authority", then this would indicate that "fewer worries, tensions and troubles" was the second most important incentive to him, and so on through the twenty incentives included in the study.

The question might arise as to why the respondent was asked what changes between two incentives he would prefer if he could make such a choice, rather than to have him simply specify which of these incentives were more important to him in his job. One distinct advantage lies in the fact that it is an indirect way of asking him to express his personal opinion of the importance of job incentives, thereby substantially reducing the effect of the tendency which all (or most) individuals have to give "socially-desirable" or "respectable" answers to questions concerning such matters as work incentives, rather than to express their true feelings with regard to them.

It is indeed well known in the field of attitude measurement that this tendency on the part of people to respond in the socially-desirable way is extremely widespread, and presents a problem for any type of questionnaire format. Thus, there existed the danger that an individual, if asked directly which of a number of incentives was most important to him, would choose statements which are generally recognized as socially-sanctioned

ones, such as for example, "Have more opportunity to devote all my energies and personal resources to my work", and to avoid choosing those which would be least socially-approved (at least, in management circles), such as "Have shorter working hours". That is, he would tend to choose or avoid choosing these types of statements regardless of how he truly felt about them. Thus, asking an individual such questions in an indirect manner, and inferring from his responses the degree of importance he attaches to these incentives in terms of the kinds of changes he desires, serves as a distractor to a conformist mental set, thereby minimizing the chances that he will give a more, or less socially-attractive response.

An additional precaution which was utilized to further minimize the effects of this particular type of distortion was to introduce the incentives by clearly specifying in the instructions to the questionnaire that, although the manager is required to judge which incentives are more important to him than other ones, all of these incentives are in fact important at all levels of management. More specifically, the introductory instructions read: "A number of job characteristics which are important to people at all levels of management have been identified. Some of these job characteristics will be more important to you than others. We would like to know which ones you presently consider more important and which ones you presently consider less important to you." In this way, the individual is provided with a frame of reference which views all twenty incentives as being "desirable" for those in management positions like himself, thereby encouraging him to choose them according to his own

preference, since in a sense they are all socially-approved.

Finally, it was felt that the comparative form of the presentation of the incentive statements in itself would reduce the distorting effects of social desirability. When every incentive is judged in relation to every other one, it would be difficult for the manager to consistently bias his responses in the direction of a socially-desirable or acceptable way, since he would have to do so over nineteen comparisons for every motive, a factor which he would not have had to contend with had he dealt with each motive as a separate entity. In addition, many incentives would be perceived to be of equal or approximately equal desirability, but he would still be forced to choose the more important of the two with the comparative approach. Despite the advantages of the method and format of the present study for reducing the effects of social desirability, it is well to remember that no procedure exists in the field of attitude measurement for completely eliminating this distorting factor. However it was felt by the researchers that the format employed here was the best that could have been used to counteract this type of response bias.

It should be pointed out that asking an individual in what way he would prefer to change his job (rather than to have him specify what incentives were important to him in this context), was not done solely to minimize the effects of social desirability. Another important reason for the use of this format is the fact that it provides a truer picture of current incentives actually pursued by individuals in the industrial

setting. Thus, when the individual indicates that he prefers a change in his job that would provide him with more of a certain work incentive, this indicates that he considers this need to be important to satisfy within the context of the present work setting. In other words, even if in theory or ideally, other incentives might be more important to him, one must infer that they are not in the immediate scope of the present situation, and therefore not the salient ones for a truly adequate understanding of his behaviour as a manager in that industrial organization.

It is important to realize then, that this kind of data does not provide any precise indication as to why an individual ranks the work incentives in a particular way. For example, if an individual manager ranks more power and authority as the most important one to him (that is, chooses it over all of the other nineteen motives), and places more responsibility fourth in order of importance, there is no clear way of determining his reason for ordering these motives in this specific way. Indeed this fact is recognized specifically in the Motivation Questionnaire instructions (see page 2 of appendix Q), which state: "If you feel that in your job, it would be more important to you to receive a better salary than to have shorter working hours, regardless of what the reason might be, then you would put an "X" next to the statement "Receive a better salary", as shown below."

It could be that he chose authority first and responsibility fourth in order of importance because of the fact that, objectively speaking, he lacks an adequate amount of authority in his management

position to carry out his duties effectively, and he therefore wants this factor more than any other one, including more responsibility. Or, alternatively, he may attach more importance to power than to increased responsibility because his need for this incentive is strong irrespective of the amount of power he presently has in his job. There are many other possible reasons which would account for this particular ordering of incentives, for example, it might be that in general, an individual has a stronger need for more responsibility than for more power in his job, but in the specific work situation in which he is engaged, this need for responsibility is fully satisfied (while his need for power is not), and therefore, responsibility is less urgent or important at this particular time in this specific situation. Still further, it could be that while his need for responsibility is ideally strongest of all, opportunities to satisfy it are relatively unattainable, such as might be the case in an organization which delegates very little responsibility to certain of its managers. As a result, he is compensating by developing an extremely strong need for power and authority, relegating his need for more responsibility to a secondary position.

In point of fact, the reason why a particular motive is considered important or relatively unimportant to satisfy in a specific work situation for a specific individual is not the concern of this research study. What is of primary concern are the incentive preferences of groups of managers covering a number of companies and organizational levels within them. Suppose, for example, that it was found that among management members of one ethnic group at one level in a single organization

power and authority was ranked as the most important motive to satisfy. The likelihood that this strong preference was the result of the fact that this group as a whole was systematically deprived by the organization of adequate power, though certainly possible, nevertheless would not be highly probable.

If, in addition, this strong attraction to power were characteristic of the same ethnic group at all three management levels, the possibility that this striving reflected an objective lack of power possessed in their job would be less probable, since few if any organizations would withhold authority to this extent from a large proportion of its management staff. In this situation, there would be some evidence indeed that this uniformly strong desire for power would reflect a striving characteristic of members of this culture. However, if this strong desire for power were characteristic of managers of one ethnic group over all levels of both Non-Service and Service organizations, then the evidence that power was a strong and inherent motive for members of that culture within the industrial milieu would be a powerful one indeed, since it is inconceivable that a specific situational factor accounting for the attraction to this incentive would be consistent across all levels of all companies. The trend of results over all levels and companies constitutes the primary interest of the researchers for the study of work motivation then, since it is from such over-all trends that truly cultural differences between the two groups are revealed. Therefore, the fact that the results do not provide precise information about the reasons underlying the relative importance individuals attach

to the twenty work motives, does not detract from the significance of large differences between the two ethnic groups in their work motivation.

Measurement Techniques Employed

The questionnaire utilized in the study of Motivation is shown in Appendix Q pages 2-8 and 51-57. The reader will note that the paired comparison format used previously in the Goal Evaluation part of the study of Organization Goals (See chapter IV, pages 108 to 110) has again been employed here, but in the Motivation study, the complete (rather than the partial) paired comparison system has been utilized. As discussed at some length in Chapter IV, the complete paired comparison system has the distinct advantage of forcing the individual to compare every incentive statement with every other one, thereby providing a simulation of the kind of real-life choices actually made by business leaders in contemplating changes to be introduced in jobs, and providing as well relatively precise information. As indicated in the Instructions, the individual manager is asked to choose between each of these incentives, pair by pair on the basis of which aspect of his job he would like to have changed (e.g., better salary, more opportunities for promotion, etc.).

It should be noted here that, of the total of twenty incentive statements employed in the study, fourteen were included in Questionnaire I, Part I of the Questionnaire booklet, and six were included in

Questionnaire 9, Part II of the booklet. As indicated in Chapter III, page 82, the fourteen shown in Questionnaire I were considered to be the most important incentives, while the six included in Part II were considered somewhat less important and were included in the hope that enough managers would complete the whole Questionnaire Booklet to warrant their use in evaluating the work motive patterns of each ethnic group. Thus, in Questionnaire I, a total of ninety-one comparisons or choices are made. This constitutes a complete pairing of the first fourteen statements (A to N inclusive). Questionnaire 9 presents a comparison of each of the six latter statements (O to T inclusive) with each of the fourteen former ones as well as among themselves for a total of ninety-nine choices. See page 534 for a complete list of these twenty statements with their corresponding letters.

The next step is to examine the method employed to derive indices which would indicate quantitatively the choices of the two ethnic groups and show the pattern of differences between them in work motivation. Substantially the same method was employed here as that used in the Goal Comparison part of the study of Organizational Goals (chapter IV, pages 119 to 120). Briefly, the number of times that a particular incentive was chosen over the others by an individual was computed for each individual. Thus, each of the twenty incentives¹ received a score, for each manager, varying from 0 to 19 depending upon the number of times

¹ The reason why the analysis of results is based on a comparison of twenty rather than fourteen statements is given in the Research Results section of this chapter, page 531.

a particular incentive was preferred to the nineteen other ones by a manager. For the analysis of the data, managers were divided into ten sub-groups as shown in Table 7 on page 560, the basic unit being an ethnic group (French or English Canadian) of a particular management level within a specified type of organization (service, non-service). For each of the ten ethnic sub-groups, the main number of times that a particular incentive was chosen over the other incentives was computed (the total number of choices divided by the number of managers within a group). This procedure was repeated for each of the twenty incentives.

These means of number of preferences for each of the twenty incentives were then rank ordered separately for each ethnic group, with the incentive statement receiving the largest mean (or average) number of choices ranked first, the second largest mean ranked second, and so on through all of the twenty incentives.

For each management level of Service and Non-Service organizations, the two sets of rank orders of the twenty incentive statements, one set representing the way in which the average French Canadian manager ranked in order of relative importance to him the twenty incentives, the other set representing the average English Canadian ranking, were then intercorrelated, using the tau coefficient of correlation.¹ This was done in order to show quantitatively the extent to which the two ethnic groups would rank the twenty statements similarly or differently, and therefore to learn the extent of differences in their preference of work incentives, if, in fact, any differences were to be found.

¹ For a discussion of this statistic, see Appendix A page 6.

In addition to computing tau correlation coefficients, the sign test¹ was applied to the results for each work incentive shown in Table 7 in order to determine whether any trend of rank differences found between the two ethnic groups was a significant one. Indeed, as discussed in previous chapters, if a rank difference between the two ethnic groups for a given motive is truly a cultural one, one would expect to find this difference (a difference in the same direction) to exist independently of level of management or organization type, that is, be present in all or most ethnic comparisons made.

Finally, for each incentive, an index was developed to reflect the magnitude of any existing rank difference trend. This index is the algebraic sum of the rank differences for each of the five level groupings presented in Table 7 (levels 1 and 2 of non-service organizations, levels 1 and 2 of service organizations, and level 3 of non-service and service organizations combined). In order to best reflect the over-all trend, any rank difference that was contrary to this trend was given a minus sign and the over-all trend index consisted in an algebraic sum of these differences. For example, it can be seen by referring to Table 7 that Statement J has an index of 20. There are rank differences in all five ethnic comparisons and all of the differences are in the same direction (French Canadian managers giving a higher rank than English Canadian managers). The index in this case consists in simply adding the existing differences, $6+3+6+3+2$, for a total of 20. On the other hand, the trend index for

¹ For a discussion of this statistic, see Appendix A page 3.

Statement T is 6. In four of the five ethnic comparisons, French Canadian managers rank this motive higher than do English Canadian managers. In these four comparisons, the total rank difference is 7. In one instance, at level 2 of Non-Service organizations, English Canadian managers attribute a higher rank to this incentive, the rank difference being equal to 1. The difference trend index therefore becomes the algebraic sum of these rank differences, that is, $2+2+2+1-1$, for a total of 6. To give another example, Statement 1 receives a difference trend index of 0 because in four comparisons there are differences between the two groups of one rank, two of these differences being in the direction of English Canadian managers giving higher priority to this motive while the two other differences are in the opposite direction, that is, in the direction of French Canadian managers giving higher priority to that particular motive.

Research Results

As mentioned earlier, fourteen statements were included in Part I of the Questionnaire Booklet and the six others in Part II. This was done as a precautionary measure in the event that an insufficient number of managers could complete the whole Questionnaire Booklet. As it turned out, a sufficiently large number of managers succeeded in answering all of the questions in the Questionnaire Booklet to warrant a complete analysis of work motivation based on all twenty incentives rather than be limited to a partial analysis based on only fourteen statements.

Table 1 presents a comparison of the number of managers of each

Table 6.1 - Numbers of French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational levels (L) within Companies who answered only Part I, and those who answered both Parts I and II of the Questionnaire Booklet.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
C ₁	FC	(109)*	54**	(35)	28		
C ₁	EC	(81)	63	(86)	81		
C ₃	FC	(129)	109	(81)	77		
C ₃	EC	(86)	14	(73)	57		
C ₁₀	FC	(74)	66	(21)	20		
C ₁₀	EC	(126)	99	(91)	82		
C ₄	FC	(153)	143	(112)	107	(6)	6
C ₄	EC	(151)	113	(172)	167	(61)	55
C ₅	FC	(149)	134	(44)	41		
C ₅	EC	(255)	130	(94)	85		
C ₂	FC	(308)	290	(247)	236	(17)	15
C ₉	EC	(81)	69	(112)	104	(28)	23
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	(20)	18
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	(103)	100

* The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of managers who answered part I of the questionnaire booklet, thus providing data for the first fourteen statements only. ** The numbers outside the parentheses refer to the number of managers who answered both parts of the questionnaire booklet, thus providing data for all twenty statements.

ethnic group within each management level of each company who answered both parts of the questionnaire (thus providing information on all twenty incentives) to those who completed Part I only (thus providing information on only fourteen incentives). It can be seen that at levels 2 and 3 of management, the differences are virtually negligible. Although the level 1 difference in number is quite large for companies 1 (F.C.), 4 (E.C.) and 5 (E.C.), the number of managers who completed the comparison of all twenty statements is nevertheless sufficiently large to provide meaningful results. In one instance, however, (company 3, E.C.) the number was too small to accept results with any assurance that they would represent, at least to some extent, the relative rankings of the eighty-six managers, had they had the time to answer all questions.

Since this occurred in only one of the thirty groups, it was decided to consider the analysis using the results based on all twenty statements, considering that the additional information obtained by far outweighed any small bias that could be introduced by the reduction in sample size, even in this one case (company 3, E.C.).¹ For the reader's convenience, the twenty statements are reproduced below along with the letter used to represent each of them in the tables which follow in this section:

¹ To determine the extent to which the results could be biased by including the fourteen E.C. managers of company 3, a tau correlation coefficient was computed between the average ranks given by members of the small group (14) and members of the large group (86) for the fourteen statements that were common to both groups. The tau correlation was found to be .80, thereby providing good evidence to the effect that, for all practical purposes, no distortions were introduced by analyzing the results found in the twenty statements using a reduced sample.

- A. "Receive a better salary."
- B. "Have shorter working hours."
- C. "Have more opportunity for promotions."
- D. "Have more assurance that I can remain on this job as long as I want to."
- E. "Have more definite and regular working hours."
- F. "Have more possibility of treating people as human beings, rather than as tools of production."
- G. "Have greater possibility of being appreciated for my work."
- H. "Have a better social security plan at work (pension, life insurance or health insurance plans)."
- I. "Being given the responsibility (i.e., being held responsible) for a greater number of important decisions."
- J. "Have more power and authority in my job."
- K. "Have fewer people to please, being less exposed to criticism."
- L. "Have fewer worries, tensions and troubles."
- M. "Have more attractive and pleasant physical work surroundings."
- N. "Have more opportunity to devote all my energies and personal resources to my work."
- O. "Have greater possibility of developing close friendships at work."
- P. "Have more efficient work equipment and installations."
- Q. "Have to deal directly with fewer people in the company to get my work done."
- R. "Have more possibility of being appreciated for myself, as a person."
- S. "Have more opportunity to train and develop my subordinates for responsible positions in the company."
- T. "Have more opportunity to specialize in the job area I like best (i.e., accounting, training, purchasing, maintenance, assembly operations, etc..).

The analysis and interpretation of the research findings will be conducted in two phases. First, an analysis will be made of rank order differences between the two ethnic groups on the twenty motives by type of organization (non-service and service), and by level of responsibility in each in order to determine differences between the two groups in particular types of organizations and/or levels of management within these types. Relatively large differences between the two groups (rank order differences of 2 or more) will be the major focus of interest, rather than small differences (rank order difference of 1 or less). Secondly, an analysis will be made of trends of differences which occur across types of organizations and levels, so that information will be provided with respect to broad cultural differences between the two groups in their rank orderings of the importance of the twenty work motives. The major focus of interest in this second or summary phase of the analysis will thus be upon those work motives which differentiate the two groups by large and important amounts as indicated by the magnitude of the difference trend index, as well as by the statistical significance of the sign test.

Let us turn first then to the analysis of ranks for each level in Non-Service and Service organizations. These data are contained in Tables 2 through 6. It can be seen by inspection of these tables that, in each, the motive statements are listed by letter designation, with the corresponding rank order (1 to 20) assigned by French Canadian and English Canadian managers and the difference between these ranks shown for each of

the motives.

The data for level 1 of Non-Service organizations are presented in Table 2. Before describing the major differences found, it should be noted that the tau correlation between the French Canadian and English Canadian rank orders over the twenty motives was found to be .80, indicating an over-all high level of agreement between the two groups in the relative importance they attach to these work motives. This general agreement is further illustrated by the fact that the two groups agree on the most important work motive, C, (Have more opportunity for promotions), and in fact, agree with respect to four of the five most important motives, namely: A (salary), C (promotions), I (responsibility) and T (job specialization). In addition, the two groups agree on what motives are lowest in terms of importance or priority namely: B (hours), E (definite and regular hours), K (being exposed to criticism), M (surroundings), and O (friendships at work).

It is interesting to note however, that differences between the two ethnic groups did occur despite the rather high over-all agreement. As can be seen in Table 2, the largest difference occurs with respect to incentive J (power and authority), the difference being one of six ranks. This wide disparity between English Canadian and French Canadian managers is further illustrated by the fact that, while French Canadian managers placed it among the top five motives, English Canadian managers placed it much lower in order of importance -- in ninth place. Thus, French Canadian managers very definitely express the desire for power

Table 6.2 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French
 Canadians and English Canadians at Level One of Management
 in Non-Service Organizations.

Motivations	French Canadians Rank	English Canadians Rank	Difference
A	5	2	3
B	18	20	2
C	1	1	0
D	10	13	3
E	20	18	2
F	7	5	2
G	6	7	1
H	9	8	1
I	4	3	1
J	3	9	6
K	19	19	0
L	14	15	1
M	15	17	2
N	11	10	1
O	17	16	1
P	12	11	1
Q	16	14	2
R	13	12	1
S	8	6	2
T	2	4	2

and authority to a much greater extent than do English Canadian managers at the same level of responsibility in Non-Service organizations.

This large difference could be due to the fact that, objectively speaking, French Canadian managers do not possess a degree of authority to the extent that English Canadian managers do in the workplace, or it could be a reflection of the greater importance French Canadians, as an ethnic group, attach to the possession of authority, irrespective of how much, comparatively speaking, they presently have in their jobs. The problem of determining the extent to which a difference between the two ethnic groups can be attributed to objective situational factors or interpreted as a real cultural difference arises, of course, with respect to any large disparity revealed in each of the level comparisons of both the Non-Service and Service organizations. It is only when an analysis of the over-all trend of results is presented later in this chapter that it will be possible to determine whether the cause is internal or external to the manager, whether or not differences constitute strong cultural characteristics, those which extend beyond any objective lack of power (or other incentive) possessed by either group in specific companies. With respect to the disparity between the two groups in the importance they attach to power and authority however, it is unlikely that the three separate organizations included in the Non-Service grouping would contain the same situational factor that would deprive French Canadians of authority more than it would English Canadian managers. In view of this, our hypothesis would be that the difference in the desire for more of this incentive represents a cultural

difference. It is not possible however, to confirm this hypothesis until the data in Table 7 are interpreted. The main interest in the analysis of the findings in Tables 2 through 6 then, is simply to describe and highlight contrasts between the two ethnic groups at various management levels of Non-Service and Service organizations. Whether or not these differences can be interpreted as cultural ones is a problem which will be reserved for an interpretation of the data in Table 7.

Indeed, as previously stated in this chapter (page 526), it becomes more probable that differences can be attributed to culture as one finds these differences to be consistent at increasing numbers of management levels and types of organizations. In this study, should one find consistent differences between the two ethnic groups at all three levels of management in the seven companies representing both Service and Non-Service organizations, which is the type of analysis conducted with the data of Table 7, the probability that these differences would be due to situational factors is virtually nil.

Examining further the data in Table 2, it can be seen that differences of the next highest magnitude occur with respect to incentives A (salary) and D (job tenure), both of which show differences of three rank orders. As the reader can see by the direction of these two relatively large differences, English Canadian managers at the lower level of the hierarchy attach greater importance to remuneration than do French Canadian managers at this lower level. On the other hand, French Canadian managers are more attracted than their English Canadian colleagues to the job tenure

aspect of the security need system. Differences between the two ethnic groups of two rank orders occur with respect to seven of the incentives. Among these differences, is worth noting that the French Canadian management group at this first level of responsibility gives more weight than do English Canadian managers to incentives B (shorter hours), M (pleasant physical surroundings), and T (job specialization), while the English Canadian managers attach more importance to incentives E (definite and regular hours), F (treating people as human beings), Q (dealing with fewer people to get work done), and S (training of subordinates).

It was considered that dynamically speaking, the motives of major importance to the managers would be those they rank among the top five in order of priority, while the motives of minor or less significant importance to them would be those which were ranked among the lowest five of the twenty included in the study. It is of interest to note in this context that in addition to the very wide divergence between the two groups in the striving they have for power and authority, English Canadian managers consider the treatment of people as human beings (statement F) among the motives of major importance to them, while the French Canadian group consider this of less importance.

To summarize the major findings in terms of the need systems outlined earlier in this chapter, the most salient of these differences occur in Esteem Needs: French Canadian managers striving much more for power and authority in their jobs and to some degree, wanting more

attractive and pleasant physical work surroundings than do English Canadian managers. It is interesting to note that the other important differences range widely across all of the other need systems, two to a system, one of which is more important to the English Canadian group, the other being more important to the French Canadian group. Specifically, with regard to Security Needs, while French Canadian managers put more emphasis on job tenure than do English Canadian managers, the latter are more oriented toward obtaining definite and regular working hours than the former. The two groups are not looking for the same things in terms of an economic pay-off to the same degree. Although both groups consider salary as being major wants, English Canadians are more strongly oriented toward this economic incentive. On the other hand, though both groups consider shorter working hours as being minor in their need hierarchies, French Canadian managers consider it to be of somewhat more importance than do English Canadian managers. In terms of Self-Actualization Needs, French Canadian managers attach more importance to specializing in a specific job area, whereas English Canadian managers desire more strongly to develop subordinates than do their French Canadian peers.

Finally, while English Canadian managers wish to deal with fewer people in the accomplishment of their tasks, they nevertheless manifest a need to treat people as human beings to a somewhat greater extent than do their French Canadian counterparts.

Turning next to a comparison of the two ethnic groups in the

middle level of management in the Non-Service organizations, the tau correlation between the rankings of incentives was found to be even higher (.86) than that found at the first level of management in this group of organizations (.80, as previously noted). Examining the comparisons in Table 3, it can be seen that the high agreement in the importance the two groups attach to the total of twenty work incentives is reflected by the fact that in only four instances are there rank differences of large magnitude, while the two groups agree perfectly on the priority of eight of the incentives. (In contrast, there are large differences between the two groups on ten of the incentives, and zero rank differences in only two instances for level 1 of the Non-Service grouping, as shown in Table 2).

It can be seen that the two groups show complete agreement on the importance of the top three incentives: I (responsibility), C (promotions), and S (development of subordinates). In addition, both ethnic groups also place A (salary) within the top five in importance. Thus, considerable agreement exists between the two ethnic groups on the motives of major importance to them. Among the bottom five in importance, those incentives considered of minor importance to attain, both groups again substantially agree, with perfect agreement on the lowest two, E (definite and regular hours), B (shorter hours), and close agreement on K (less exposure to criticism).

The differences in motivation between the two groups which do show up are confined to incentives D (job tenure), J (power and

Table 6.3 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French
 Canadians and English Canadians at Level Two of Management
 in Non-Service Organizations.

Motivations	French Canadians Rank	English Canadians Rank	Difference
A	5	4	1
B	19	19	0
C	2	2	0
D	12	16	4
E	20	20	0
F	6	5	1
G	9	9	0
H	10	11	1
I	1	1	0
J	4	7	3
K	17	18	1
L	14	14	0
M	16	15	1
N	8	8	0
O	15	17	2
P	11	10	1
Q	18	13	6
R	13	12	1
S	3	3	0
T	7	6	1

authority), O (friendships at work), and Q (deal with fewer people to get work done), the latter one showing by far the largest difference in priority. Thus, English Canadians, much more than French Canadians, wish to deal directly with fewer people to get their work done, with the difference being five rank orders. While French Canadians place this statement among the lowest five, indicating that to them it is a motive of minor importance, English Canadians place it in thirteenth position, a clear indication that it is not a motive of minor importance to this group. That French Canadian managers value one aspect of security much more than do English Canadians is attested by the fact that the former group placed statement D (job tenure) in the twelfth position, while the English Canadian group ranked it sixteenth. The incentive power and authority (statement J) again (as with level 1 of the non-service group) differentiated the two ethnic groups, with French Canadian managers considering it a major incentive, the English Canadian group ranking it seventh. The two groups differ by two ranks with respect to the attractiveness of developing close friendships at work (statement O), with the English Canadian group placing this incentive within the lowest five, indicating that it is of minor importance to them, while the French Canadian group placed it two ranks higher in order of importance.

Thus, at this second level of management, the Security and Esteem Needs of French Canadian managers are stronger than those of English Canadian managers, and reflected by the difference of four ranks

with regard to job tenure and three ranks with respect to the power and authority dimension of a manager's job. However, the largest difference is to be found in their Social Needs, French Canadian managers manifesting a much stronger social need by having a less intense desire to deal with fewer people at work, while having concomitantly a greater inclination to develop friendships within the industrial context.

The next set of comparisons to be made is between the two ethnic groups in the Service group of organizations, commencing with Table 4 which shows the rankings of the two groups at the first level of management. The correlation between the two rankings of desired work changes was found to be .76, a somewhat lower correlation than in either of the two management levels in the Non-Service grouping of organizations. Here, differences of two or more ranks were found for seven statements.

The two ethnic groups again substantially agree regarding the first five incentives, those considered of major and central importance to them, namely: A (salary), C (promotions), F (treating people as human beings), and T (job specialization). There is also considerable agreement on the five motives deemed of minor importance to satisfy in the workplace, namely: Statements B (shorter hours), E (definite and regular hours), M (pleasant physical surroundings), and O (friendships at work).

Table 6.4 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French
 Canadians and English Canadians at Level One of Management
 in Service Organizations.

Motivations	French Canadians Rank	English Canadians Rank	Difference
A	2	1	1
B	18	17	1
C	1	2	1
D	11	14	3
E	20	19.5	.5
F	5	3	2
G	6	7	1
H	9	9	0
I	7	6	1
J	4	10	6
K	15	19.5	4.5
L	14	13	1
M	17	16	1
N	10	11	1
O	19	18	1
P	13	8	5
Q	16	15	1
R	12	12	0
S	8	4	4
T	3	5	2

With regard to large differences between the two groups in the importance of work motives, it can be seen in Table 4 that French Canadian managers much more strongly desire power and authority in their jobs (statement J), and in fact, this was the largest disparity (a rank difference of six) found between the two ethnic groups at this level. While the French Canadian group considered power and authority to be a major motive (within the top five ranks) to satisfy in the workplace, English Canadian managers did not consider it of major importance. The French Canadian group also attached more importance than did English Canadian managers to being less exposed to criticism (statement K), with the English Canadian group placing this one last on the list of twenty, while the French Canadian group placed it considerably higher in order of importance. English Canadians, on the other hand, considered much more important than did the French Canadian group efficient work equipment (statement P), with the English Canadian group placing this incentive among the top ten, while French Canadians placed it within the bottom ten in importance. In addition, English Canadian managers attached much more importance than did their French Canadian colleagues to Statement S, which refers to the training of subordinates.

Three other differences of somewhat smaller magnitude between the two groups are shown in Statements D, F, and T, with French Canadians wanting more job tenure, and greater specialization in work (statements D and T), and English Canadian managers wanting more opportunity to treat people as human beings (statement F).

To recapitulate, the English Canadian managers at this first level of Service organizations have much stronger Self-Actualization needs than do French Canadian managers. They have much greater need for efficient work equipment and a clearly stronger desire to develop subordinates. In contrast, French Canadian managers have a definitely more intense need for Security as reflected in their significantly greater concern for job tenure and being less exposed to criticism. The French Canadian group, in placing more emphasis on power and authority, show a stronger Esteem need than do their English Canadian colleagues, while English Canadian managers reveal themselves to have a somewhat stronger Social need in desiring to some greater extent to treat people as human beings rather than as tools of production.

With regard to the rankings of motives by the two ethnic groups at the middle level of management in Service organizations, it was found that the correlation between the two sets of rankings was fairly high, .77. The data in Table 5 indicate that there is substantial agreement between the two groups on the motives of major importance to them, that is, on the highest five in priority, even though some differences in rank between the two groups are in evidence among these five. These motives are: A (better salary), C (promotions), I (responsibility), J (power and authority), and S (training of subordinates). The two groups also show considerable agreement on the minor motives, that is those considered among the five least important as factors to change in their jobs. Thus, the two groups agree on the relative unimportance of E (definite and regular hours), M (pleasant physical

Table 6.5 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French
 Canadians and English Canadians at Level Two of Management
 in Service Organizations.

Motivations	French Canadians Rank	English Canadians Rank	Difference
A	4	3	1
B	19	15	4
C	3	4	1
D	13	18	5
E	20	20	0
F	8	6	2
G	7	7	0
H	10	11	1
I	1	2	1
J	2	5	3
K	15	19	4
L	14	14	0
M	18	17	1
N	9	9	0
O	17	16	1
P	12	10	2
Q	16	13	3
R	11	12	1
S	5	1	4
T	6	8	2

surroundings), and on O (friendships at work).

With regard to differences between the two groups, it can be seen that the largest one (5 ranks) occurs with respect to Statement D, French Canadian managers attaching much more importance to job tenure than do their English Canadian colleagues. While English Canadian managers place this motive among the lowest five in priority, indicating that it is of minor importance to them, the French Canadian group place it in the thirteenth rank position. The next three important differences are found with respect to Statements B, K, and S, with the two groups "switching" rank orders on motives B and K. Thus, while English Canadians are more attracted to shorter hours and are less concerned about criticism, the French Canadian group desires less exposure to criticism, but are not as preoccupied about obtaining shorter working hours. The third difference of the magnitude of four rank orders is found with Statement S which, as mentioned above, was included by both groups in the top five most important motives. Here, English Canadian managers consider training subordinates to be the most important incentive of all to pursue in the workplace, while French Canadian managers rank it in fifth place in order of priority.

Differences of the magnitude of three ranks occur for motives J and Q, with French Canadian managers wanting power and authority more so than English Canadian managers, and the English Canadian group considering dealing with fewer people to get work done more important than do

French Canadians. Somewhat smaller differences between the two groups, rank order disparities of two, are found with Statements F, P, and T. Thus, English Canadians attach more importance than do French Canadians to treating people as human beings, and to efficient work equipment, while French Canadian managers at this middle level desire, more than do English Canadian managers, to specialize in their jobs.

These results then, clearly indicate that the French Canadian management group strives to satisfy Security Needs to a much greater extent than does the English Canadian management group, as reflected both in the greater importance French Canadians attach to job tenure and being exposed to less criticism. Esteem Needs are also of greater importance to French Canadians than to English Canadians, as indicated by their greater desire for power and authority. English Canadians however, express a stronger want for one of the two components of Economic Needs (shorter working hours). With regard to Social Needs, again, while English Canadian managers seek greater opportunity to treat people as human beings, somewhat more so than do French Canadian managers, they, on the other hand, wish to a greater extent to deal with fewer people at work. Finally, English Canadian managers, once again, show stronger Self-Actualization Needs by considering the development of subordinates of the utmost importance and the obtaining of efficient work equipment somewhat higher in their hierarchy of needs than do French Canadian managers, even though this latter group places somewhat more emphasis on job specialization.

Considering finally a comparison of the rank orders of work motives of the two groups at level three of combined Non-Service and Service organizations¹, the correlation between the two over-all rankings was found to be .80, a high level of agreement. The results of Table 6 reveal that, generally speaking, the two groups agree on the motives they consider to be of major importance, ranking Statements C (promotions), I (responsibility), J (power and authority), and F (treating people as human beings) within the top five in order of priority. Nevertheless, there are two rank differences between the two groups on both Statements J and C of this top grouping of motives. Whereas English Canadian managers consider the most important change in their jobs to be developing subordinates (statement F), French Canadian managers rank this incentive in the third position. On the other hand, while French Canadian managers consider second most important power and authority (statement J) the English Canadian group place this incentive in the fourth rank position within the top five.

Regarding those incentives considered least important, again there is substantial agreement between the two ethnic groups at this higher management level. Both groups consider as incentives of minor importance those reflected in Statements B (shorter hours), E (definite and regular hours), K (being exposed to criticism), and M (pleasant physical surroundings). It should be noted here that despite the agreement between the two groups on the lower five motives, Statement M

¹ The reason for combining management groups for these two types of organizations at level 3 is explained in Chapter IV (p. 99).

Table 6.6 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French
 Canadians and English Canadians at Level Three of Management
 in Service and Non-Service Organizations.

Motivations	French Canadians Rank	English Canadians Rank	Difference
A	6	6	0
B	19	19	0
C	5	3	2
D	14	18	4
E	18	20	2
F	9	5	4
G	7	8	1
H	13	12	1
I	1	2	1
J	2	4	2
K	16	16	0
L	11	14	3
M	20	17	3
N	4	7	3
O	17	15	2
P	12	11	1
Q	15	13	2
R	10	10	0
S	3	1	2
T	8	9	1

(pleasant physical surroundings) shows a rank difference of three, the French Canadian group placing it last, the English Canadian group placing it in seventeenth position. Statement E (definite and regular hours), differentiates the two groups by two rank orders, with the English Canadian group placing it last in order of importance, while the French Canadian group assigned it to the eighteenth position.

The two groups show the most substantial differences with respect to Statements D and F, with rank differences of four in both cases. With regard to these two incentives, French Canadian managers attach much more importance to job tenure, while English Canadian managers, much more than their French Canadian colleagues, express the need to treat people as human beings in the workplace. In fact, the English Canadian group placed this latter incentive among their major ones (within the top five), while the French Canadian group did not.

Other large differences between the two ethnic groups occur with respect to Statements L, M, and N, each of which showed differences of three rank orders. In these three, French Canadian managers attach more importance than do English Canadian managers to the avoidance of worries, tensions, and troubles and to devote all energies and resources to work, with the French Canadian group placing this incentive within the top five, while English Canadians ranked it seventh. English Canadians attach more importance to pleasant physical surroundings, as already indicated. Of those differences not already highlighted, Statements O and Q

merit comment. With respect to Statement O, French Canadian managers desire to a somewhat greater extent than their English Canadian counterparts the incentive friendships at work, while with regard to Statement Q, English Canadians again to a greater extent than French Canadians, want to deal with fewer people to get their work done.

In considering all the important differences between the two groups in terms of the need systems outlined earlier in the chapter, the striking contrast between the two groups is the much greater desire on the part of the French Canadian group for security, as reflected in job tenure, fewer worries, tensions, and troubles, and definite and regular hours. In no case did English Canadian managers surpass French Canadian managers in the importance they attach to Security Needs. Although English Canadians place somewhat more emphasis on dealing with fewer people at work, they nevertheless manifest a stronger Social Need than do French Canadians in striving more for the treatment of people as human beings and the development of closer friendships at work. In terms of Self-Actualization and Esteem Needs, no clear-cut, over-all differentiation exists between the two groups. Regarding the former needs, while English Canadian managers consider as more important the development of subordinates and the obtaining of further promotions, the French Canadian managers more strongly desired to devote all of their energies to their jobs. For the latter needs it can be seen that whereas English Canadian managers desire somewhat more pleasant physical work surroundings, French Canadian managers to a somewhat greater extent strived to obtain more

power and authority in their jobs.

In terminating this description of each group's ordering of motives or needs, a further point is worth making in reference to members of this top management group. It has been pointed out in various sections of Chapter V as well as inferred in many instances throughout the discussion of the Goal Conflict scales in Chapter IV, that French Canadian managers much more than English Canadian managers feel at odds with the basic goals or objectives of industrial organizations. This greater level of incompatibility with industrial life engenders in them feelings of self-devaluation, a general level of discomfort, and a pervasive feeling of being "out of place" in relation to their career aspirations. These feelings, in turn, create a good deal of tension and strain which we have brought out as being at the source of the development of a Theory X-oriented personal managerial philosophy. It would certainly be plausible to assume that this general level of anxiety would increase as one attains successively higher levels of management, and that the differences between a more secure group, (which, in this report, we have described the English Canadian group to be on the basis of the data presented in both Chapters IV and V) and a less secure group (which we have described the French Canadian group to be) would also be greater at these successively higher levels.

In this regard it is interesting to see from the results of Table 6, that the difference in strength between the two groups with

regard to Security Needs is, in fact, at a maximum at this third level of management as revealed by a contrast in the ranks of the two groups on Statements D, E, and L. In examining how both groups react to these needs at various levels of Non-Service and Service organizations, it can be seen in the results presented in Table 7 that for French Canadian managers, job tenure takes on less importance at successively higher levels of management. It does also for English Canadian managers. These findings are not surprising since one would normally expect job tenure to be less emphasized at these higher levels. What is interesting to note however, is precisely the fact that at these upper echelons (levels 2 and 3), the "gap" between the two groups is larger than at the lower level (level 1), thereby providing further evidence to the effect that French Canadians become more insecure than English Canadians at successively higher echelons of management. Regarding Statement L, Table 7 reveals that both groups are consistent from the first to second level of management with regard to the strength of the need to have fewer worries, tensions, and troubles, and this need is virtually of equal strength to both groups at these two management levels. At the highest echelon however, a fairly large difference emerges, bringing out once again the relatively greater insecurity of French Canadian managers. While the strength of this need remains constant for the English Canadian group, that of the French Canadian group is significantly intensified.

Finally, this difference in security level is further substantiated

by the fact that whereas at the first level of management the trend is for English Canadian managers to want more definite and regular working hours, this trend is reversed at the higher echelon. Another indication of the relatively higher anxiety level of the French Canadian group can be found by contrasting the results of Statements E and N of Table 6. The fact that French Canadian managers from a relative standpoint want more opportunity to devote all of their time and energies to their work than do English Canadian managers, while at the same time, they want more definite and regular hours (again more than do their English Canadian counterparts), can only be interpreted as an irrational solution to an anxiety-laden situation, rather than as an intrinsic desire to self-actualize at work. The fact that French Canadians concomitantly are less motivated to advance than are English Canadians only serves to corroborate this point.

Having outlined the patterns of motives to which the two ethnic groups have subscribed, let us now turn our attention to those differences between the two groups that can be interpreted with confidence as cultural ones, and examine how each of these contribute to a better understanding of the different mentalities of these two groups that have already been identified in Chapters IV and V. The results in Tables 2 through 6 have amply demonstrated that although the two ethnic groups at each of the three hierarchical levels in Non-Service and Service organizations generally agree on the motives considered to be of primary importance, as well as those deemed to be of minor

relevance to them, there were, nevertheless, major differences between the French Canadian and English Canadian managers in terms of the strength regarding certain incentives. Although some of these differences were restricted to a specific management level or type of organization, the reader has undoubtedly already noted the recurrence of some of these disparities from one level of management and type of organization to the other. As already indicated in the earlier parts of this chapter (see pages 525 to 527), it is important to determine the extent to which such trends of difference are significant as well as to identify for each motive the magnitude of any significant difference in order to understand in what manner each of these two cultures are motivated differently, that is, seek different satisfactions in work.

Table 7 presents the rankings of the two groups across levels and types of organization, showing the rank differences at each level, and the summated rank difference across levels and organizations.¹

Inspection of this table reveals that the two most important differences between the two groups are found for motives J and D. In all five

1

The reader is referred to pages 530 and 531 for a review of the rationale underlying the methodology for this analysis. In addition, it was decided that a summated rank difference of five or more would constitute an important one between the two groups, one that would be of practical significance, and therefore worth mentioning. In this manner, should differences of only one rank appear (differences of little practical significance), disparities of this magnitude would at least have to be consistent across all five level groups. Therefore, in order for a difference to be interpreted as a cultural one, the trend of difference given a motive must be significant according to the sign test, and the magnitude of the summated rank difference must be five or larger.

Table 6.7 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers at Organizational Levels One and Two of Non-Service and Service Organizations, and at Level Three of Combined Non-Service and Service Organizations, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for each Level, and Summated Rank Differences Across Levels and Organizations.

M o t i v a t i o n	NON-SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS						SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS						NON-SERVICE and SERVICE COMBINED		SUMMATED RANK DIFFERENCE ¹	
	Level 1			Level 2			Level 1			Level 2			Level 3			
	F.C.	E.C.	R.D.	F.C.	E.C.	R.D.	F.C.	E.C.	R.D.	F.C.	E.C.	R.D.	F.C.	E.C.		R.D.
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)											
J	3	9	6	4	7	3	4	10	6	2	5	3	2	4	2	20*
D	10	13	3	12	16	4	11	14	3	13	18	5	14	18	4	19*
Q	16	14	2	18	13	5	16	15	1	16	13	3	15	13	2	13*
S	8	6	2	3	3	0	8	4	4	5	1	4	3	1	2	12*
F	7	5	2	6	5	1	5	3	2	8	6	2	9	5	4	11*
P	12	11	1	11	10	1	13	8	5	12	10	2	12	11	1	10*
K	19	19	0	17	18	1	15	19.5	4.5	15	19	4	16	16	0	9.5
A	5	2	3	5	4	1	2	1	1	4	3	1	6	6	0	6*
T	2	4	2	7	6	1(-)	3	5	2	6	8	2	8	9	1	6

¹ This index is an algebraic sum of the rank difference (R.D.) columns 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. Since it is a trend index, all reversals to the major trend are given a minus sign (-). * Indicates a significant trend of differences beyond the .10 level of significance.

Table 6.7 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers at Organizational Levels One and Two of Non-Service and Service Organizations, and at Level Three of Combined Non-Service and Service Organizations, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for each Level, and Summated Rank Differences Across Levels and Organizations (concluded).

M o t i v a t i o n	NON-SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS				SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS				NON-SERVICE and SERVICE COMBINED		SUMMATED RANK DIFFERENCE	
	Level 1		Level 2		Level 1		Level 2		Level 3			
	F.C.	R.D.	F.C.	R.D.	F.C.	R.D.	F.C.	R.D.	F.C.	R.D.		
	E.C.	(1)	E.C.	(2)	E.C.	(3)	E.C.	(4)	E.C.	(5)		
M	15	17	16	15	17	16	18	17	20	17	3	4
B	18	20	19	19	18	17	19	15	19	19	0	3
G	6	7	9	9	6	7	7	7	7	8	1	3
L	14	15	14	14	14	13	14	14	11	14	3	3
N	11	10	8	8	10	11	9	9	4	7	3	3
O	17	16	15	17	19	18	17	16	17	15	2	3
R	13	12	13	12	12	12	11	12	10	10	0	1
E	20	18	20	20	20	19.5	20	20	18	20	2(-)	.5
C	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	4	5	3	2(-)	0
H	9	8	10	11	9	9	10	11	13	12	1	0
I	4	3	1	1	7	6	1	2	1	2	1(-)	0

¹ Same as footnote 1 of previous page.

comparisons, French Canadian managers consider these two changes to be much more important to them in their jobs than do English Canadian managers, and this trend of difference is a statistically significant one in both instances. It is interesting to note that with regard to motive J, all French Canadian groups place it among the top five changes that they would like to see in their jobs, demonstrating that, for them, it is a motive of major importance to satisfy. This occurs in only two English Canadian groups, and the highest rank given this motive by the English Canadian groups is a rank order of four. On the other hand, the lowest rank given by any French Canadian group is a rank of four. It is clear, therefore, that French Canadian managers, much more than their English Canadian counterparts across levels and organizational types, want more power and authority in their jobs.

This finding is strikingly consistent with the research results of Chapter V. In that chapter, it was revealed that the very strong reliance on the status of one's position was the most salient distinguishing characteristic of the French Canadian manager, along with his interpersonal premises (in contrast to his English Canadian peer), and in fact, constituted his predominant frame of reference for viewing and dealing with subordinates. As shown in the analysis of results in terms of the leadership model presented in that chapter, it was seen that the French Canadians' deeply-rooted attitudes toward authority and authority figures were reflected in the high value they place on their status in the

company hierarchy, and in turn, prescribed to a considerable extent the essentially Theory X ideology they held with respect to subordinates in the workplace, an ideology which dictates that individuals are basically inclined to avoid work, and to take little interest in the organization's goals and tasks. This result then, clearly confirms the fact that culture inculcates strong authoritarian needs in French Canadians. Regardless of the level of management or the type of organization, one of the strongest needs that they are striving to gratify is this particular one.

The same highly significant trend of difference is evident for motive D (job tenure). In three of the five groups, English Canadian managers place this motive among the bottom five, indicating that it is of minor importance to them, while in no instance do French Canadians rank motive D this low. It can be seen in Table 7 that the differences are substantial in all four groups, the minimum disparity being a rank of three.

The dynamic relationship between these two strong motives (power and authority, and job tenure), among the French Canadian group is not difficult to discern. It is indeed very likely that the typical French Canadian, feeling insecure in the industrial milieu and thus being vitally concerned about security in his job, would implicitly tend to see that gaining more and still more authority (a need already predominant in his hierarchy) would be a means of ensuring the security of his position in the organization, that is, as a means of reducing the risks that he would for some reason be deprived of his position of managerial responsibility,

or in some way, not "make the grade" within the organization. In short, it could be said that his dominant needs for security and for power, in effect, are strongly interrelated, the former reinforcing and augmenting the latter.

Another aspect of this dynamic relationship between the two motives can be seen if one recalls the findings of the Family Scales in Chapter V. It was pointed out that the French Canadian much more than the English Canadian viewed his role in life as being the "breadwinner", and that being a good provider for his family constituted one of the most important motives for his aspirations to succeed in an industrial organization. Success in industry, in other words, was not something valued in itself as a means of self-fulfillment, but as a way of fulfilling his role as a good family man. This interpretation is certainly in line with the present results, in that it is likely that an individual who conceives of his role as being mainly one of a breadwinner, especially if, in addition, this is the role he is expected to fulfill best by members of his family, would constantly seek reassurance in the stability of his job, and value this more highly than many or most other incentives.

Again, as was pointed out in Chapter IV (see page 280, footnote), this interpretation is to be viewed as a relative one, and not as an absolute one. The point is that if, as an ethnic group, French Canadians are more family-centered in this way than are English Canadians, it is not surprising to find that regardless of level of management or type of organization to which they belong, they invariably seek this type of

reassurance to a greater extent than do their English Canadian colleagues. Thus, one can conceive of a "cultural syndrome" operating in the French Canadian culture with regard to these three factors in the sense that to fulfill his provider role, the French Canadian strives for more job tenure, and to attain it, he seeks power and authority (even more strongly than he otherwise would).

The next four motives, Statements Q, S, F, and P, refer to incentives that English Canadian managers are striving to attain to a significantly greater extent than are French Canadian managers. The trends of differences are statistically significant in all four cases thereby indicating that, as a cultural group, English Canadian managers, in wanting these kinds of changes in their jobs more so than French Canadian managers, place more value on the satisfaction of these needs than do French Canadian managers as a cultural group.

Regarding Statement Q, although both groups are not too concerned about this type of change, since each group places it among the bottom ten, nevertheless, in four of the five comparisons, French Canadians place it among the bottom five whereas this never occurs for the English Canadian groups. Much more so than French Canadians then, English Canadian managers wish to deal directly with fewer people in the company in order to get their work done.

In the light of our previous findings, this result is not surprising. We have seen that English Canadian managers are more economic-oriented than are their French Canadian colleagues (see chapter IV), and what is even

more important, they are much more task-oriented in the sense of being governed in the setting of work standards by a high level of aspiration rather than by a low one, this latter level being found to be much more characteristic of French Canadian managers (see pages 437 to 442 of chapter V). Finally, the results of Scale N in Chapter V clearly indicated that English Canadian managers involve to a much greater extent their subordinates in the decision-making process. This democratic, egalitarian approach is most valued in the English Canadian culture and the principle of involving as many people as possible in managerial activities is generally implemented by the creation of a multitude of committees. It is perhaps in reaction to an exaggerated application of this principle that this need becomes a more salient one to English Canadian managers. It could be that, in their eyes, some of these committees are not functional enough for them, a consideration which, as we have seen, would be less important to a French Canadian manager. At any rate, it is clear that, if English Canadian managers do not want to deal as much with others as they do on their present job, it is not because they wish to be less exposed to criticism (statement K), nor is it because they show little or no concern for basic human considerations (statement F) a factor to which we will now turn our attention.

In all five comparisons, English Canadian managers show more desire for this type of change than do French Canadian managers. The trend is a statistically significant one and it is interesting to note that while four of the five English Canadian groups include this among

the top five changes that they would like to see, only one French Canadian group does so, although both groups place it among the top ten.

At first glance, this finding might appear to be contradictory with the results presented in Chapter IV. Indeed, it was brought out in these previous analyses of goals that French Canadian managers were generally much more social-humanitarian oriented than were English Canadian managers. It was also noted that French Canadian managers, much more than English Canadian managers, felt that industry was inhuman and that man was a victim of economic exploitation (see pages 286 and 287 of chapter IV). More specifically, it was found that many more French Canadian managers were of the opinion that industry does not treat people as human beings but rather works them like machines. One would therefore expect that, being a part of this perceived exploitative machinery, a French Canadian manager would precisely want "more possibility of treating people as human beings, rather than as tools of production", at least more than would English Canadian managers who do not have to the same degree this negative image of industry and who, in addition, are more economic-oriented.

Why then would English Canadian managers manifest a stronger urge to satisfy this need than French Canadian managers? In the opinion of the researchers, the answer to this question lies in a consideration of an individual's perception of the possibility of actually treating people in industry in any other way but as tools of production. Again, referring to Chapter IV, it was found that French Canadian managers felt to a much

greater extent than their English Canadian colleagues that "industry is inhuman because the only important thing to industry is production", that "in large companies, the only thing that counts is production". It would appear then that, in the minds of French Canadian managers, it is not possible to treat people as human beings by the very nature of the industrial process.

Another impelling reason for this state of affairs is the fact that French Canadian managers are much more Theory X oriented. Since, according to this Theory, people do not and cannot as human beings derive intrinsic satisfaction from industrial work, there is no alternative but to treat them as tools of production, since the industrial context does not provide any activity which can be considered to be worthy of human dignity (see scales D, E, F, G, of chapter IV and scales H, J, K, N and O of chapter V). If, however, one is of the opinion that industrial work is and can be worthy of man's human dignity in the sense of providing him with an opportunity to fulfill the most worthy of man's needs and if, in addition, he felt that people can be and are basically identified with their job, then it would follow that to have more opportunity to treat people as human beings rather than as mere tools would be a very strong need indeed, for it is a psychological need which is a basic motivator in man. Viewed in this relative context then, it is the opinion of the researchers that if English Canadian managers strive more to satisfy this need than do French Canadian managers, it is not because, per se, they consider it more important than do French Canadian managers, nor because they do, in fact, treat people more as tools of

production than do French Canadian managers (we have seen evidence to the contrary in chapter V), but rather because they simply perceive the possibility of being able to do so within the context of an industrial setting to a much greater extent than do French Canadian managers.

Regarding Statement S, it can be seen that, in general, English Canadian managers show more concern for training and developing subordinates for responsible positions in the company than do their French Canadian counterparts. They give higher priority to this change in four of the five comparisons (the level II - non-service comparison revealing no differences). This trend is, of course, statistically significant. Although both ethnic groups place this change among the top ten, thereby indicating that it is an important motive to them, four of the five English Canadian groups placed this statement among the top five changes that they wished could be made as against three of the five French Canadian groups. It is interesting to note that two of the English Canadian groups give absolute priority to this particular change (ranking it 1) whereas the highest rank given by a French Canadian group is the rank of 3 on two occasions.

This finding is consistent with the previously identified job in security syndrome involving Statements J, D, and the notion of one's role as breadwinner of the family. From an emotional standpoint, if an individual feels insecure in his job and relies on power and authority to strengthen his position, it would follow that he would also

be less inclined to develop his subordinates for more responsible positions in the company since this would only increase his present fear of losing his job. A factor which undoubtedly serves to reinforce this position is, again the fact that the average French Canadian manager is more Theory X-oriented than the average English Canadian manager. Thus the former would be more inclined to feel that it would be a waste of time to develop subordinates¹.

The differences between the two ethnic groups in terms of Statement P are generally small, the sole exception being a difference of five ranks at Level 1 of Service organizations. Nevertheless, differences in the direction of English Canadian managers desiring more change than do French Canadian managers exist for all five comparisons, thereby indicating a significant cultural trend. Since English Canadian managers are more economic-oriented as seen in Chapter IV and more task-oriented on a long term basis involving the creation of a climate whereby individuals can utilize their potential maximally, this finding is not an unexpected one.

A final statement ranked differentially by the two ethnic groups is Statement A. It can be seen by examining the rank differences for Statement A that English Canadian managers are more motivated by salary than are French Canadian managers, although both groups, with the exception of top management, place a change in salary as being among the top five

¹

The reader will recall that the Theory X manager believes most subordinates are not basically work-motivated individuals.

preoccupations they have. Even at this top management level, both groups consider salary as the sixth most important change. The trend of difference is, of course, a statistically significant one.

On the surface, it would appear that this difference contradicts our interpretation that, essentially, the basic motive of French Canadians for working in industry is the financial security it provides since this affords them an opportunity to obtain the only satisfaction they can derive from work; that of being a good family provider. Why then would the French Canadian manager not consider salary to be at least as important as, if not more important than, the English Canadian? In the opinion of the researchers, all things being equal, he should. However, as has already been pointed out in the beginning of this chapter, in an area as complex as that of human motivation, all things are never equal.

One probable explanation lies in the fact that for French Canadian managers, money has a much more negative connotation than it does for English Canadian managers. As a result, it is likely that English Canadian managers can more willingly and openly admit that they are truly motivated by monetary considerations. To this latter group, the pursuit of personal financial gain would not be anything to be ashamed of, at least certainly not as much as it would tend to be to French Canadian managers. If this were true, then one would expect that French Canadian managers would express their concern for financial security in indirect ways. We have already seen that, in fact, they do by being more preoccupied with job

security (statement D). It can also be seen from an examination of the results in Table 7 with regard to Statement C that, with the exception of top management people, French Canadian managers want as much as, if not more than, English Canadian managers the opportunity to obtain further promotions. This can also be interpreted as an indirect way of attaining financial security.

In this light, the top management results are revealing. At this high level, financial security is to a fairly large extent secured. It is therefore not surprising to find that, at this level, French Canadian managers are less concerned about promotions than are English Canadian managers, while remaining much more concerned than English Canadian managers about job security. Thus, in the opinion of the researchers, the results for this statement are not contradictory. On the contrary, they corroborate the findings of other data (scale G, for example) and seem to illustrate how intricate the dynamic inter-relationships between all of these attitudinal variables within the area of leadership can be.

As can be seen by the results of Table 7, no statistically significant pattern of differences was found with regard to the other thirteen incentives. Nevertheless, among this latter group, one statement, K, merits some consideration because of its relatively high summated rank difference index. This rank difference index of 9.5 is largely due to the substantial differences in ranking between the two ethnic groups at the first two levels of Service organizations. Although our experimental

design does not allow us to evaluate the significance of this finding, these results strongly suggest that, in Service organizations, French Canadian managers, to a much greater extent than English Canadian managers, wish to be less exposed to criticism by others. At any rate, this difference is certainly consistent with those that have already been noted with regard to Statements D and J.

Before concluding this chapter, one final point is worth mentioning with regard to the validity of this type of data. In contrasting the strength of motives of lower level managers to that of higher level managers, one would expect to find, on the basis of what is known in this area from other studies in the Social Sciences, differences between these managerial groups. In particular, and going from the lower to the higher echelon of management, one would expect to find the following in terms of our statements:

(1) A decrease in motive strength for:

- (a) Statement A: "Receive a better salary."
- (b) Statement C: "Have more opportunity for promotions."
- (c) Statement D: "Have more assurance that I can remain on this job as long as I want to."
- (d) Statement H: "Have a better social security plan at work."
- (e) Statement J: "Have more power and authority in my job."
- (f) Statement T: "Have more opportunity to specialize in the job area I like best."

(2) An increase in motive strength for:

- (a) Statement I: "Being given the responsibility i.e. being held responsible for a greater number of important decisions."
- (b) Statement N: "Have more opportunity to devote all my energies and personal resources to my work."
- (c) Statement O: "Have greater possibility of developing close friendships at work."
- (d) Statement S: "Have more opportunity to train and develop my subordinates for responsible positions in the company."

An examination of the results of each of these statements in Table 7 reveals that all of these predictions are substantiated for each of the two ethnic groups. It would appear then that this measurement technique can be relied upon to yield meaningful data. These findings clearly indicate that the higher the rank attributed to a particular motive, the stronger the expressed need.

To recapitulate in terms of the needs systems described in the beginning of this chapter, from a cultural standpoint, French Canadian managers express much stronger needs for security and Self-Esteem at work than do English Canadian managers. They want to be reassured to a much greater extent that their present position is a secure one and seek much more power and authority in their job than do English Canadian managers. The Self-Actualization Needs of this larger group, on the other hand, are greater than those of French Canadian managers. Specifically, the opportunity to train and develop subordinates and the

acquisition of more efficient equipment and installations are more pressing requirements to English Canadian managers than they are to French Canadian managers. In terms of Social Needs, while English Canadian managers express a more intense desire to deal directly with fewer people at work than do French Canadian managers, they nevertheless concomitantly feel a stronger urge to treat people as human beings. Finally, though both groups are highly motivated by financial considerations, English Canadian managers express a somewhat greater inclination for monetary gain than do French Canadian managers. In general, these differences in motivation are consistent with: (a) the divergent views that these two groups hold toward the priority of economic organizational goals when contrasted to social-humanitarian ones, (b) the differential level of conflict they perceive between organizational goals and other goals of personal significance to them, (c) the essentially incompatible attitudes they possess with respect to the status of their position and the motivation to work of others as well as the personal feelings others in the workplace have toward the status of their position, (d) the discordant orientation they take in relation to task accomplishments and the needs of others in the workplace, and finally, (e) the basically incongruent outlook they have toward supervisory control and participation in decision-making.

Chapter VII

The Effects of Amount of Human Relations Training and Religious Affiliation on Management Attitudes

In the comparison of the two ethnic groups on relevant demographic characteristics, presented in Chapter II, it was mentioned that in view of the differences in distribution found to exist between the two groups on two of these characteristics, "Amount of Human Relations Training Received," and "Religious Affiliation," it was deemed important to determine the degree to which differences between the two groups on these two variables contributed to differences found to exist in the attitudes studied in the research project. An analysis of the effects on attitude differences of these two characteristics is presented in this chapter.

Amount of Human Relations Training Received

In order to keep these analyses within reasonable limits, it was decided to study the effects of training on ethnic differences with regard to the attitude scales studied in Chapter V only. The study was limited to the data in Chapter V also because it was felt that few if any human relations training programs deal in a direct way with the attitudes investigated in Chapter IV, that is, few training programs of this type are concerned with the priority of organizational goals or with family, individual and other areas of conflict studied in that chapter. Consequently, it was not expected that the amount of human relations training would have any significant impact on attitude differences revealed in the Organizational Goals chapter.

While most human relations training programs deal with problems

of work motivation, it is important to note that the content of such training programs characteristically concentrate on the motivation of others in the workplace, particularly the manager's subordinates, and not on the manager's own personal work motives. Hence, the manager might, in such programs, become more familiarized with the incentives which those lower in the hierarchy seek at work, but it is unlikely that the importance he himself attaches to work motives would be significantly changed in such training. For this reason, it was felt that amount of training would not significantly affect the attitudes of either ethnic group (and therefore any attitude differences found between them). In addition, it was the opinion of the researchers that any major influence which human relations training would have on the manager's attitude toward the work motives of other people would be accounted for in the analysis of training effects on the attitude scales in Chapter V, particularly the Interpersonal Premises scale, which concerns attitudes toward the motivation of others toward work. In short, it was felt that the scales of the leadership model constituted the most convenient and most appropriate ones for studying the effects of human relations training on the attitudes of managers. It was judged that these scales constituted the ones upon which the effects of human relations training would be most clearly revealed if they did in fact exist.

In the analysis of the results for each scale, three tables will be presented. The first table will show the mean scores of the two ethnic groups by organizational level and company on the attitude scale being

Table 7.1 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Interpersonal Premises, Scale H, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, Shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) Within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
C ₁	FC	(26)	4.0*	(10)	3.7		
C ₁	EC	(29)	2.8	(30)	3.1		
C ₃	FC	(51)	4.5*	(22)	3.7*		
C ₃	EC	(38)	3.0	(27)	3.1		
C ₁₀	FC	(49)	4.5*	(10)	3.8*		
C ₁₀	EC	(68)	3.2	(38)	3.0		
C ₄	FC	(66)	4.4*	(27)	3.4*	(1)	4.5*
C ₄	EC	(38)	3.0	(25)	2.5	(17)	2.1
C ₅	FC	(83)	4.8*	(23)	3.8*		
C ₅	EC	(142)	2.9	(36)	2.8		
C ₂	FC	(206)	4.3*	(143)	4.0*	(12)	4.8*
C ₉	EC	(26)	3.2	(27)	2.9	(6)	2.3
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	(5)	4.7*
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	(39)	2.7

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

dealt with for managers of both ethnic groups who have received from 0 to 60 hours of human relations training. Using the sign test, an analysis of trends of differences is made to determine whether or not cultural differences exist with respect to the particular scale.¹

The second table presents the same type of information for those managers who have received from 61 to 120 or more hours of training. The same analysis is made to determine whether or not cultural differences still persist between members of the two ethnic groups who have received more extensive training in human relations. Finally, the third table presents the combined data shown in the first two tables, but the main interest in the data in this table is in determining to what extent managers of each ethnic group who have received more extensive training (61 to 120 hours or more) obtained higher or lower mean scores on the scales than did those who have received less training (0 to 60 hours). Once more the sign test was utilized to determine the significance of trend differences, except that in the case of the third table, the differences investigated were those between managers who received less training, and those who received more training within each ethnic group. It is these trends, and not trends of differences between

¹ This analysis is similar to the one conducted for the scales dealt with in Chapter V using the total sample of managers. One scale, H1, is omitted from this study due to a technical error. There is no reason to believe, however, that the effects of human relations training would be different from those on other scales, especially H and I, which are attitude dimensions of the same component of which Scale H1 is a part, namely, Component 1.

Table 7.2 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Interpersonal Premises, Scale H, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, Shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) Within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(20) 3.9	(17) 3.5*	
C ₁	EC	(27) 3.5	(47) 2.6	
C ₃	FC	(74) 4.2*	(58) 3.6*	
C ₃	EC	(47) 2.8	(46) 2.5	
C ₁₀	FC	(24) 4.8*	(11) 3.8*	
C ₁₀	EC	(55) 3.0	(53) 2.7	
C ₄	FC	(85) 4.2*	(84) 3.6*	(5) 3.5*
C ₄	EC	(111) 3.1	(146) 2.8	(44) 2.4
C ₅	FC	(62) 4.3*	(21) 4.2*	
C ₅	EC	(104) 3.1	(53) 2.9	
C ₂	FC	(94) 4.2*	(102) 3.8*	(5) 4.1*
C ₉	EC	(55) 2.8	(84) 2.9	(22) 2.8
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(14) 3.0*
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(63) 2.4

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

the two ethnic groups (the concern of the first two tables), that are dealt with in this third table. For all of these tables, any significant differences within a particular level of a given company are indicated by an asterisk.¹

Examining first the results for Scale H, of Component 1 of the leadership model, it will be revealed that the higher the mean score on this scale, the lower the level of confidence the manager has in other people's intrinsic interest in work and basic commitment to the organization's goals. Tables 1 and 2 reveal that among managers who have received little human relations training² (60 hours or less), as well as among those who have received much human relations training (more than 60 hours of training), the trend of differences between the two groups is highly significant. It can be seen that in both Tables 1 and 2, the French Canadian mean score is higher than the English Canadian mean score at all fifteen levels, and in fourteen of these instances the differences are significantly different.

These results indicate that French Canadian managers are much more Theory X-oriented than are their English Canadian counterparts, irrespective of the amount of human relations training they have received. Table 3, however, reveals an interesting difference between the two groups.

¹ This type of analysis is identical to the ones conducted for the scales in Chapter V, using the confidence interval test. ² Hereafter "little training" refers to those managers who have had 60 hours of training or less, while "much training" refers to those managers who have had more than 60 hours of such training.

Table 7.3 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Interpersonal Premises, Scale H, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, Shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) Within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	4.0	3.9	3.7	3.5		
C ₁	EC	2.8	3.5*	3.1	2.6*		
C ₃	FC	4.5	4.2	3.7	3.6		
C ₃	EC	3.0	2.8	3.1	2.5*		
C ₁₀	FC	4.5	4.8	3.8	3.8		
C ₁₀	EC	3.2	3.0	3.0	2.7*		
C ₄	FC	4.4	4.2	3.4	3.6	4.5	3.5*
C ₄	EC	3.0	3.1	2.5	2.8	2.1	2.4
C ₅	FC	4.8	4.3*	3.8	4.2		
C ₅	EC	2.9	3.1*	2.8	2.9		
C ₂	FC	4.3	4.2	4.0	3.8	4.8	4.1
C ₉	EC	3.2	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.3	2.8
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	4.7	3.0*
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	2.7	2.4

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Among French Canadian managers, those who have received more human relations training (in excess of sixty hours) have lower mean scores in eleven of the fifteen comparisons on Scale H, than those French Canadian managers who have had less human relations training (less than sixty hours). This trend is statistically significant, and indicates that on the whole, French Canadian managers who receive more human relations training are less Theory X-oriented, that is, have higher confidence in the intrinsic work interest of others, than are those who have received less training. It can be seen that, in three instances, the differences are of large and important magnitude.

This significant trend is not in evidence among English Canadian managers, however. In only seven companies do managers who have received more training show lower Scale H mean scores than members of their own ethnic group who have received less training. In seven other instances, the reverse is true, and in one case, the means are equal. It might be well to point out that the differential effect of training on the two groups is not too surprising when one considers that French Canadians, as an ethnic group, showed mean scores which were very significantly higher than those of the English Canadian group, as shown in Chapter V (see table 1). Thus there would be, so to speak, more "room for improvement" among French Canadians than among English Canadians, the latter group as a whole holding more positive attitudes toward the interest and concern of others with respect to work. In short, there would be a greater probability that exposure on the part of French Cana-

dian managers to training would result in a greater change in attitude in the direction of being less Theory X-oriented than would be the case among English Canadians.

The important point to consider here, however, is whether or not exposure of the two ethnic groups to training serves to reduce the significant gap which exists between them with respect to their personal philosophies of management. The results in Table 3 indicate that no significant trend is discernible. In nine instances, the differences in attitude between the two groups are reduced, when comparing mean scores between little and much training, while in six others, the gap is increased.

In conclusion, it is apparent that irrespective of the amount of human relations training received, the French Canadian manager, much more than the English Canadian manager, holds to a Theory X philosophy of management. Although French Canadian managers who have received much training are less inclined toward a Theory X conception of others in the workplace than are those who have received little training, there is no evidence in these research findings that extensive exposure to human relations training programs of the type conducted up to the present time in industrial organizations results in significantly reducing the wide disparity between the two groups with regard to their personal philosophy of management.

Let us now turn to an analysis of Scale I of Component 1. The higher the mean score on this scale, the greater the tendency on the part

of the manager to view his authority as unimpeachable and infallible, and the stronger his need to guard and preserve his status in the workplace. Tables 4 and 5 show that among managers who have received little human relations training, as well as among those who have received much, the trend of difference between the two ethnic groups is a statistically significant one. The French Canadian mean is higher than that of English Canadians in thirteen of the fifteen level comparisons in both Tables 4 and 5. In Table 4, it can be seen that nine of these differences are of significant magnitude, while in Table 5, six differences of large magnitude are revealed.

These results indicate that French Canadian managers as an ethnic group value much more highly the status of their position of managerial authority than do English Canadian managers as an ethnic group, regardless of the amount of exposure to human relations training they have had. However, (as in the results of scale H previously described in this chapter), a significant trend does show through among the French Canadian management groups as shown in the data presented in Table 6. In eleven of the fifteen comparisons across levels and companies, French Canadian managers who have received much training show lower mean scores on Scale I than do members of that ethnic group who have received little human relations training and three of these differences are of large and important magnitude. This trend is a statistically significant one, revealing that on the whole, French Canadian managers who receive more human relations training are significantly less status-oriented and less concerned with guarding their authority than are their colleagues who

Table 7.4 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Status Needs, Scale I, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(25) 4.4	(10) 3.8	
C ₁	EC	(29) 4.1	(30) 3.9	
C ₃	FC	(49) 5.2*	(23) 4.0*	
C ₃	EC	(35) 4.0	(27) 3.3	
C ₁₀	FC	(47) 5.0*	(10) 4.2*	
C ₁₀	EC	(67) 4.2	(39) 3.5	
C ₄	FC	(66) 4.8*	(27) 3.9	(1) 3.5*
C ₄	EC	(38) 4.1	(25) 3.4	(17) 2.9
C ₅	FC	(81) 5.5*	(23) 3.7	
C ₅	EC	(140) 4.3	(37) 4.1	
C ₂	FC	(209) 4.9	(143) 4.5*	(12) 5.3*
C ₉	EC	(26) 4.5	(27) 3.7	(6) 3.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(5) 3.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(39) 3.6

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.5 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Status Needs, Scale I, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(19) 3.8	(17) 3.9	
C ₁	EC	(28) 4.4	(45) 3.8	
C ₃	FC	(73) 5.1*	(58) 3.9*	
C ₃	EC	(47) 3.8	(45) 3.3	
C ₁₀	FC	(24) 4.5	(11) 3.8	
C ₁₀	EC	(54) 4.1	(52) 3.8	
C ₄	FC	(84) 4.4*	(84) 3.7	(5) 3.3
C ₄	EC	(110) 4.1	(145) 3.4	(42) 3.1
C ₅	FC	(62) 5.0*	(20) 4.9	
C ₅	EC	(103) 4.2	(53) 4.3	
C ₂	FC	(97) 5.0*	(99) 4.7*	(5) 3.7
C ₉	EC	(51) 4.5	(82) 3.9	(22) 3.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(14) 3.3
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(64) 3.0

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

have had less training.

This trend toward less concern for status with greater amounts of training does not hold up among the English Canadian group, however. In only five instances do managers of this ethnic group who have received more training show lower Scale I mean scores than those who have received less, while in an equal number of cases, their mean scores on the scale actually increase, indicating that with more training, there is more concern for the status of one's position. In the remaining five cases, the mean scores are equal, meaning that attitudes towards one's status remain unchanged. As in the case with Scale H, an important point to note here is that, as the results for this scale revealed in Chapter V (see table 3), the French Canadian management group showed much higher mean scores than did the English Canadian management group. In view of this, there would be a greater probability that the former group would "lose" some of their preoccupation with the status of their position than would the latter (who are already much less concerned with status and authority in their job).

It can also be seen in Table 6 that the differences between the two groups in their attitude toward the status of their position do not narrow to any significant extent as a result of the exposure of the two groups to more human relations training. In eight cases, the attitude differences between the two groups are reduced, in three cases the gap between them remains the same, and in four instances, the disparity actually increases.

Table 7.6 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Status Needs, Scale I, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	4.4	3.8	3.8	3.9		
C ₁	EC	4.1	4.4	3.9	3.8		
C ₃	FC	5.2	5.1	4.0	3.9		
C ₃	EC	4.0	3.8	3.3	3.3		
C ₁₀	FC	5.0	4.5	4.2	3.8		
C ₁₀	EC	4.2	4.1	3.5	3.8		
C ₄	FC	4.8	4.4 *	3.9	3.7	3.5	3.3
C ₄	EC	4.1	4.1	3.4	3.4	2.9	3.1
C ₅	FC	5.5	5.0	3.7	4.9 *		
C ₅	EC	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.3		
C ₂	FC	4.9	5.0	4.5	4.7	5.3	3.7 *
C ₉	EC	4.5	4.5	3.7	3.9	3.5	3.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC					3.9	3.3
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC					3.6	3.0 *

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

One can conclude from these findings then, that regardless of the amount of human relations training received, the French Canadian manager, to a much greater extent than his English Canadian colleague, values the authority and prestige of his management role. Despite the fact that French Canadians who have had much human relations training tend to be less status conscious than those of the same ethnic group who have had little training, there is no indication that the two ethnic groups are brought closer together to a significant degree in terms of their attitudes toward this dimension of Component I as a result of extensive exposure to human relations training programs. In considering both the Interpersonal Premises (Scale H) and Status Needs (Scale I) dimensions of Component I of the leadership model then, one can conclude that although French Canadian managers do show some tendency to change their management philosophy toward that of English Canadian managers as a result of extensive human relations training, the disparity between the two groups remains a very wide one.

Scale J, one of the two scales which measures the Task Orientation dimension of Component II is now to be considered. It should be noted that the higher the mean score on this scale, the greater the emphasis on the "pressure to produce" aspect of Task Orientation. The mean comparisons shown in Tables 7 and 8 reveal that among managers who have received little human relations training, as well as among those who have received much training, the trend of differences between the two groups is a significant one, indicating a cultural difference in the attitudes of

Table 7.7 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale J, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(60) 7.0	(16) 6.9	
C ₁	EC	(43) 6.5	(37) 6.4	
C ₃	FC	(51) 6.5	(23) 5.6	
C ₃	EC	(38) 6.1	(27) 5.6	
C ₁₀	FC	(49) 6.5*	(10) 5.5	
C ₁₀	EC	(68) 5.8	(39) 6.2	
C ₄	FC	(67) 6.4	(27) 6.5	(1) 6.5
C ₄	EC	(39) 6.7	(25) 5.8	(17) 6.1
C ₅	FC	(79) 6.8*	(20) 6.3	
C ₅	EC	(141) 6.4	(37) 5.7	
C ₂	FC	(208) 5.9	(143) 6.2	(12) 6.5
C ₉	EC	(25) 6.3	(26) 6.0	(5) 6.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(5) 6.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(39) 6.4

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.8 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale J, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(36) 6.4	(18) 6.3	
C ₁	EC	(33) 6.2	(47) 6.5	
C ₃	FC	(73) 6.6*	(58) 5.9*	
C ₃	EC	(47) 5.8	(45) 5.2	
C ₁₀	FC	(24) 5.8	(11) 7.1*	
C ₁₀	EC	(54) 5.9	(52) 6.1	
C ₄	FC	(85) 6.7	(85) 6.0	(5) 6.5
C ₄	EC	(111) 6.9	(145) 5.7	(44) 6.1
C ₅	FC	(63) 7.1*	(21) 6.9	
C ₅	EC	(105) 6.4	(53) 6.2	
C ₂	FC	(97) 6.1	(100) 6.0	(5) 6.9*
C ₉	EC	(54) 6.1	(84) 5.9	(22) 4.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(14) 5.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(64) 5.5

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

the two groups toward the Scale J aspect of Task Orientation. This can be seen by the fact that for those having received little human relations training, the French Canadian means are greater than those of their English Canadian counterparts in ten level comparisons and of these ten, two are larger by a significant amount. For those having been exposed to much training, French Canadian means are larger in eleven cases (one being equal), with five of these eleven differences being greater by a significant amount.

This pattern of results indicates that despite limited or extensive exposure to training, French Canadian managers, much more than their English Canadian colleagues, are predominantly concerned with volume output and favour pressure tactics in order to get production out. Table 9 indicates that over companies and levels, no significant trend toward less Task Orientation (in the sense of using pressure tactics) is evident among either the French Canadian or the English Canadian group when the means of those who have received little human relations training are compared to the means of those having been exposed to much training. For the French Canadian groups, the means decrease in size between the two degrees of training exposure in eight cases, in six they actually increase in size, and in one case, they are the same. For English Canadian managers, the means diminish in four instances, are greater in nine, and are the same between the two levels of training in two cases.

The reader should note here that in the analysis of Scales H and I, it was found that French Canadian groups who had received much

Table 7.9 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale J, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	7.0	6.4	6.9	6.3		
C ₁	EC	6.5	6.2	6.4	6.5		
C ₃	FC	6.5	6.6	5.6	5.9		
C ₃	EC	6.1	5.8	5.6	5.2		
C ₁₀	FC	6.5	5.8	5.5	7.1 *		
C ₁₀	EC	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.1		
C ₄	FC	6.4	6.7	6.5	6.0	6.5	6.5
C ₄	EC	6.7	6.9	5.8	5.7	6.1	6.1
C ₅	FC	6.8	7.1	6.3	6.9		
C ₅	EC	6.4	6.4	5.7	6.2		
C ₂	FC	5.9	6.1	6.2	6.0	6.5	6.9
C ₉	EC	6.3	6.1	6.0	5.9	6.9	4.9 *
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	6.9	5.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	6.4	5.5 *

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

human relations training were, respectively, less Theory X-oriented and less status-conscious than members of their own ethnic group who had received little human relations training. It was important to determine whether the lower means of those French Canadians who had received much training had resulted in significantly diminishing the gap between the two ethnic groups with respect to these two aspects of their managerial philosophy which existed among those managers with little human relations training, or whether the reduction of the French Canadian means was insufficient to bring the two groups who had received more training "closer together" in their managerial philosophies. With respect to Scale J, since the means did not change to a significant degree for either the French Canadian or English Canadian groups between the two levels of extensiveness of training, then no narrowing of this gap between the attitudes of the two groups could occur. Thus, an analysis of this type done for Scales H and I was not necessary. It never is necessary to conduct this analysis unless the means are significantly different between the two degrees of extensiveness of training for one or both ethnic groups.

Tables 10 and 11 show the results for Scale K of Component II of the leadership model for, respectively, less than sixty hours, and sixty hours or more of human relations training. The reader will recall that the higher the mean score on this scale, the stronger the manager's Task Orientation as reflected by the emphasis he places upon the "target-setting" or "task structuring" function of his role as a leader. The data in

Table 7.10 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale K, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(60) 8.4	(16) 8.8 *	
C ₁	EC	(44) 8.7	(36) 9.3	
C ₃	FC	(50) 8.2 *	(23) 8.4 *	
C ₃	EC	(38) 8.6	(27) 9.0	
C ₁₀	FC	(49) 8.5 *	(10) 8.4 *	
C ₁₀	EC	(67) 8.9	(39) 9.0	
C ₄	FC	(66) 8.6 *	(27) 9.1	(1) 9.5 *
C ₄	EC	(39) 9.0	(24) 9.2	(17) 9.3
C ₅	FC	(82) 8.4 *	(23) 8.4 *	
C ₅	EC	(141) 9.0	(38) 8.9	
C ₂	FC	(210) 8.2 *	(144) 8.7	(12) 8.8
C ₉	EC	(26) 8.7	(26) 8.8	(6) 9.0
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC			(5) 9.3 *
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC			(39) 9.0

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.11 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale K, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(37) 8.5 *	(18) 8.7 *	
C ₁	EC	(34) 9.0	(47) 9.2	
C ₃	FC	(75) 8.2	(57) 8.6	
C ₃	EC	(47) 8.4	(46) 8.7	
C ₁₀	FC	(25) 8.2 *	(11) 8.6 *	
C ₁₀	EC	(55) 8.8	(53) 9.1	
C ₄	FC	(86) 8.4 *	(84) 8.9 *	(5) 9.5
C ₄	EC	(110) 9.0	(144) 9.1	(44) 9.3
C ₅	FC	(63) 8.2 *	(21) 8.5	
C ₅	EC	(102) 8.8	(54) 8.9	
C ₂	FC	(97) 8.2 *	(101) 8.7	(5) 9.5 *
C ₉	EC	(54) 9.0	(84) 8.8	(22) 9.0
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(14) 8.8
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(63) 9.0

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

these two tables reveal that among managers who have received little human relations training, as well as among those who have received much training, the trend of difference between the two groups is a significant one. It can be seen in both tables that the English Canadian mean scores surpass those of the French Canadian groups at thirteen of the fifteen levels. In Table 10, nine of these thirteen differences are larger by a significant amount, while Table 11 shows that eight of the thirteen English Canadian means are significantly larger.

These results clearly show that, irrespective of extensiveness of human relations training received, English Canadians are more task oriented (in the sense described above) than are French Canadians. Inspection of the data in Table 12 shows unequivocally that over companies and levels, no significant trend toward greater Task Orientation is shown for either the French Canadian or the English Canadian group when the Scale K means of those who have received little training are compared to the means of those having had much exposure to human relations training programs. For the French Canadian group, the means increase in size between the two degrees of training exposure in five instances, in six cases they are smaller, and in four they are the same. For the English Canadian group, a similar pattern occurs, with three larger means, six smaller ones, and six of the same magnitude when comparing the 0 to 60 hours with the 61 to 120 and more hours categories of training received.

It is important to note that (as was the case with Scale J),

Table 7.12 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Task Orientation, Scale K, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	8.4	8.5	8.8	8.7		
C ₁	EC	8.7	9.0	9.3	9.2		
C ₃	FC	8.2	8.2	8.4	8.6		
C ₃	EC	8.6	8.4	9.0	8.7 *		
C ₁₀	FC	8.5	8.2	8.4	8.6		
C ₁₀	EC	8.9	8.8	9.0	9.1		
C ₄	FC	8.6	8.4	9.1	8.9	9.5	9.5
C ₄	EC	9.0	9.0	9.2	9.1	9.3	9.3
C ₅	FC	8.4	8.2	8.4	8.5		
C ₅	EC	9.0	8.8 *	8.9	8.9		
C ₂	FC	8.2	8.2	8.7	8.7	8.8	9.5 *
C ₉	EC	8.7	9.0 *	8.8	8.8	9.0	9.0
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	9.3	8.8 *
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	9.0	9.0

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

since there is no significant trend of difference in mean scores for either the French Canadian or the English Canadian groups between the two degrees of exposure to human relations training, it necessarily follows that the large disparity in attitude between the two ethnic groups, in this case with regard to the target or standard-setting function of the manager's role, remains large, a finding brought out previously in Table 5.5. In short, exposure to even extensive human relations training does not seem to have any significant effect on this aspect of Task Orientation.

The next scale to be analyzed is Scale L of the Consideration of Others dimension of Component II. The higher the mean score on this scale, the greater the Consideration of Others in the sense that the manager takes more into account the needs and feelings of others in his dealings with them in the workplace. The data in both Tables 13 and 14 indicate that both among managers who have received little human relations training as well as among those who have received much training of this type, the trend is a significant one in the direction of larger means for English Canadians. In Table 13, it can be seen that in ten instances the means of the English Canadian group surpass those of the French Canadian group (in three cases the means are larger and in two, the means are equal), with six of these ten instances showing the English Canadian mean to be greater by a significant amount, while in Table 14, the data show the English Canadian mean to be larger in twelve instances, with four of them larger by a significant magnitude.

Table 7.13 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others, Scale L, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(25) 6.5	(10) 7.8	
C ₁	EC	(28) 6.5	(30) 7.6	
C ₃	FC	(50) 6.5	(22) 7.4	
C ₃	EC	(37) 6.6	(27) 7.5	
C ₁₀	FC	(48) 6.1	(10) 7.2	
C ₁₀	EC	(69) 6.7	(39) 7.7	
C ₄	FC	(66) 6.7*	(27) 8.3	(1) 8.5*
C ₄	EC	(39) 7.6	(24) 8.3	(17) 8.9
C ₅	FC	(83) 5.9*	(22) 7.7	
C ₅	EC	(144) 6.9	(38) 7.4	
C ₂	FC	(208) 6.6	(144) 7.1*	(12) 6.6*
C ₉	EC	(24) 6.5	(27) 7.7	(6) 8.0
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(5) 5.7*
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(39) 7.7

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.14 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others, Scale L, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(19) 7.1	(17) 7.4	
C ₁	EC	(27) 6.5	(47) 7.7	
C ₃	FC	(73) 6.4	(55) 7.6	
C ₃	EC	(45) 6.9	(46) 7.8	
C ₁₀	FC	(25) 6.5	(11) 7.9	
C ₁₀	EC	(55) 6.7	(53) 7.8	
C ₄	FC	(84) 6.7*	(84) 7.7*	(5) 7.3*
C ₄	EC	(108) 7.4	(145) 8.2	(44) 8.5
C ₅	FC	(62) 6.2*	(21) 6.9	
C ₅	EC	(106) 6.7	(53) 7.4	
C ₂	FC	(97) 6.8	(102) 7.3	(5) 7.5
C ₉	EC	(53) 7.0	(83) 7.5	(22) 7.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(12) 8.4
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(63) 8.1

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

These results show that English Canadian managers as an ethnic group have a significantly stronger tendency to take the needs and feelings of others into account in the work setting than do their French Canadian counterparts, and this trend holds regardless of the amount of exposure the two groups have had to human relations training programs.

Turning to Table 15, the results here show that no significant trend toward greater Consideration of Others exists for either the French Canadian or the English Canadian group when managers who have had much human relations training are compared to those having received little training. For the French Canadian group, the means of those who have had much training are larger than those who have had little in nine instances, in five the means are smaller, and in one case, the means are equal. In the corresponding comparison for the English Canadian group, the means are larger in six cases, smaller in six, and equal in three. Thus the management members of neither group are significantly affected in terms of their Consideration of Others as measured by Scale L. Since the attitudes of both groups remain substantially the same, the large difference between them with respect to Scale L, which has been described in Table 5.7, remains unchanged irrespective of amount of human relations training received.

Tables 16, 17 and 18 show the means of the two ethnic groups on Scale M. On this scale, the larger the mean score, the greater the degree of Consideration of Others in the sense that more concern is shown for the development of a broad and general climate of good human relations, and the establishment of a pleasant tone in one's interpersonal relationships within

Table 7.15 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others, Scale L, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L 1		L 2		L 3	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	6.5	7.1	7.8	7.4		
C ₁	EC	6.5	6.5	7.6	7.7		
C ₃	FC	6.5	6.4	7.4	7.6		
C ₃	EC	6.6	6.9	7.5	7.8		
C ₁₀	FC	6.1	6.5	7.2	7.9		
C ₁₀	EC	6.7	6.7	7.7	7.8		
C ₄	FC	6.7	6.7	8.3	7.7*	8.5	7.3*
C ₄	EC	7.6	7.4	8.3	8.2	8.9	8.5*
C ₅	FC	5.9	6.2	7.7	6.9		
C ₅	EC	6.9	6.7	7.4	7.4		
C ₂	FC	6.6	6.8	7.1	7.3	6.6	7.5
C ₉	EC	6.5	7.0	7.7	7.5	8.0	7.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	5.7	8.4*
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	7.7	8.1*

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.16 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others, Scale M, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(59) 8.6	(16) 8.8	
C ₁	EC	(43) 8.5	(36) 8.7	
C ₃	FC	(52) 8.8	(23) 9.3	
C ₃	EC	(37) 8.8	(27) 8.9	
C ₁₀	FC	(49) 8.8	(10) 9.1	
C ₁₀	EC	(64) 8.6	(39) 8.9	
C ₄	FC	(67) 9.0	(27) 9.3	(1) 9.5*
C ₄	EC	(39) 8.9	(24) 9.2	(17) 9.3
C ₅	FC	(82) 8.8	(23) 9.0	
C ₅	EC	(143) 8.8	(37) 8.9	
C ₂	FC	(207) 9.0	(144) 9.0*	(12) 9.0
C ₉	EC	(26) 8.7	(26) 8.4	(6) 8.8
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(5) 8.9
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(38) 8.7

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.17 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others, Scale M, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(37) 8.8	(19) 9.1	
C ₁	EC	(32) 8.5	(47) 8.8	
C ₃	FC	(71) 8.7	(58) 9.2*	
C ₃	EC	(46) 9.0	(46) 8.6	
C ₁₀	FC	(24) 8.5	(11) 9.1	
C ₁₀	EC	(55) 8.5	(52) 8.8	
C ₄	FC	(84) 8.8	(85) 9.0	(5) 9.5*
C ₄	EC	(109) 9.0	(144) 9.2	(44) 9.2
C ₅	FC	(60) 8.6	(21) 8.9	
C ₅	EC	(101) 8.4	(54) 8.5	
C ₂	FC	(97) 8.8	(101) 9.1	(5) 9.1
C ₉	EC	(55) 8.6	(85) 8.6	(22) 9.0
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(14) 9.1
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(64) 8.9

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.18 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Consideration of Others, Scale M, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L 1		L 2		L 3	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	8.6	8.8	8.8	9.1		
C ₁	EC	8.5	8.5	8.7	8.8		
C ₃	FC	8.8	8.7	9.3	9.2		
C ₃	EC	8.8	9.0	8.9	8.6		
C ₁₀	FC	8.8	8.5	9.1	9.1		
C ₁₀	EC	8.6	8.5	8.9	8.8		
C ₄	FC	9.0	8.8	9.3	9.0*	9.5	9.5
C ₄	EC	8.9	9.0	9.2	9.2	9.3	9.2
C ₅	FC	8.8	8.6	9.0	8.9		
C ₅	EC	8.8	8.4*	8.9	8.5*		
C ₂	FC	9.0	8.8*	9.0	9.1	9.0	9.1
C ₉	EC	8.7	8.6	8.4	8.6	8.8	9.0
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	8.9	9.1
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	8.7	8.9

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

the work-setting. Reference to Tables 16 and 17 reveals that among managers who have received little human relations training, as well as among those who have received much, the trend is toward higher mean scores for French Canadian managers than for English Canadian managers. Table 16 shows that for those who have had little training, the French Canadian mean surpasses the English Canadian mean in thirteen cases (two means are equal), and of these thirteen, two are significantly greater. Likewise in Table 17, French Canadian means are larger in eleven cases (the means being of equal magnitude in one instance), and again, two differences are large by a significant amount.

Thus, irrespective of amount of training received by both ethnic groups, French Canadian managers as a cultural group value significantly more than do English Canadians the more general and abstract notion of good human relations in the work-setting. Table 18 shows again that no significant trend toward greater Consideration of Others (in the sense reflected in Scale M) is evident for either the French Canadian or the English Canadian group in contrasting much with little training received. For both ethnic groups, the pattern of change is the same: five instances in which the means are larger for much, in contrast to little, training, two cases in which they are equal, and eight in which the means are lower in magnitude.

As previously discussed, it is evident that since the difference between the two ethnic groups was significantly great on Scale M (as shown in Table 5.6), and since no significant trend of difference in the means of

either group between the two levels of training exists, French Canadian and English Canadian managers remain far apart in their attitudes toward this aspect of Consideration of Others, that is, French Canadians consider more important than do English Canadians the broad and abstract idea of good human relations. In considering both the Task Orientation and Consideration of Others dimensions of Component II of the leadership model then, it is clear that the wide differences between the two groups remain essentially unchanged, and unaffected by even extensive exposure to human relations training. Neither group showed any significant change in their attitudes toward tasks and people involved in these tasks, and hence the wide disparity between the two ethnic groups which was shown in Chapter V with respect to Component II remains substantially the same.

The next scales for consideration are those included in Component III of the leadership model, Scale N and Scale O, dealing respectively with attitudes toward Participation in Decision-Making, and Supervisory Control. For Scale N, the higher the mean score, the greater the degree to which the manager favours the participation of subordinates in Decision-Making, while for Scale O, the higher the mean, the less the degree to which close supervision of subordinates is favoured (that is, the more the manager believes that a subordinate ought to be afforded relative freedom and autonomy in his work). The data in Tables 19 and 20 indicate that for Scale N, among those managers who have received less than 60 hours of training, as well as those who have been exposed to 60 to 120 hours or more of training, the English Canadian means surpass the French Canadian means to

Table 7.19 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Participation in Decision-Making, Scale N, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
C ₁	FC	(65)	5.6 *	(15)	6.4 *		
C ₁	EC	(43)	6.9	(37)	7.7		
C ₃	FC	(51)	5.6 *	(23)	7.0		
C ₃	EC	(37)	6.9	(27)	7.5		
C ₁₀	FC	(49)	5.4 *	(10)	6.9		
C ₁₀	EC	(67)	6.2	(38)	7.6		
C ₄	FC	(67)	5.9 *	(27)	7.6	(1)	9.5 *
C ₄	EC	(38)	7.0	(25)	7.9	(17)	9.0
C ₅	FC	(81)	5.1 *	(23)	7.5		
C ₅	EC	(144)	6.5	(36)	7.6		
C ₂	FC	(207)	5.8 *	(144)	6.5	(12)	5.3 *
C ₉	EC	(26)	6.5	(27)	7.4	(6)	8.7
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	(5)	6.3
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	(39)	8.0

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.20 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Participation in Decision-Making, Scale N, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(37) 6.3	(19) 6.8 *	
C ₁	EC	(34) 6.7	(47) 7.7	
C ₃	FC	(74) 5.6 *	(57) 6.9 *	
C ₃	EC	(47) 7.3	(46) 8.1	
C ₁₀	FC	(25) 5.9	(10) 7.8	
C ₁₀	EC	(55) 6.5	(53) 7.3	
C ₄	FC	(86) 6.0 *	(85) 7.4 *	(5) 7.5 *
C ₄	EC	(112) 7.2	(146) 8.2	(44) 8.6
C ₅	FC	(63) 5.5 *	(21) 6.5	
C ₅	EC	(106) 6.4	(53) 7.0	
C ₂	FC	(94) 5.9 *	(102) 6.5 *	(5) 6.7 *
C ₉	EC	(55) 6.6	(84) 7.5	(22) 8.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(14) 8.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(64) 8.3

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

the extent that a cultural trend of difference is indicated between the two groups for both of these levels of training. For those managers receiving little training, in fourteen level comparisons the English Canadian mean is larger, and in eight of these fourteen, differences are of statistically significant magnitude. For those having received much training, the English Canadian mean surpasses that of the French Canadian mean in thirteen instances, of which ten of these thirteen are larger by a significant amount. Thus English Canadians, to a significantly greater extent than French Canadians, favour the participation of subordinates in the Decision-Making process at work irrespective of amount of training received.

An examination of Tables 22 and 23, which compare the means of the two ethnic groups on Scale O according to the two respective levels of human relations training, reveals similar results. For those with little human relations training, English Canadian means are larger than those of French Canadians in thirteen comparisons, indicating again a cultural trend of difference, and seven of these means are larger by a significant amount. For those with much human relations training, English Canadian means surpass French Canadian means in twelve instances, of which again, seven means are larger by significant amounts.

Taking these results for Scale N and Scale O together, this pattern of results indicates that irrespective of extensiveness of human relations training received, English Canadians favour significantly more than do French Canadians the participation of subordinates in Decision-Making,

Table 7.22 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Supervisory Control, Scale 0, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60 Hours of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(48) 4.1*	(13) 5.3	
C ₁	EC	(34) 5.2	(30) 5.5	
C ₃	FC	(51) 4.7*	(19) 5.4*	
C ₃	EC	(35) 5.8	(22) 6.7	
C ₁₀	FC	(48) 4.7	(10) 5.3	
C ₁₀	EC	(65) 5.0	(38) 6.1	
C ₄	FC	(65) 4.7*	(23) 6.4	(1) 7.5
C ₄	EC	(38) 5.4	(22) 6.1	(14) 6.8
C ₅	FC	(77) 4.2*	(22) 5.5	
C ₅	EC	(141) 5.0	(36) 5.9	
C ₂	FC	(195) 4.5	(124) 5.1*	(9) 5.4*
C ₉	EC	(26) 4.7	(25) 6.8	(6) 7.2
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(4) 5.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(33) 6.2

*

Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.23 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Supervisory Control, Scale 0, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(33) 4.3	(15) 5.7	
C ₁	EC	(33) 4.8	(39) 5.5	
C ₃	FC	(73) 4.7*	(48) 5.9*	
C ₃	EC	(46) 6.1	(42) 6.7	
C ₁₀	FC	(22) 5.0	(10) 5.5	
C ₁₀	EC	(53) 5.1	(52) 5.4	
C ₄	FC	(84) 5.0	(72) 5.9*	(5) 6.3
C ₄	EC	(109) 5.2	(127) 6.9	(39) 7.3
C ₅	FC	(59) 4.1*	(13) 4.7*	
C ₅	EC	(103) 5.0	(47) 5.9	
C ₂	FC	(90) 4.9	(89) 5.3*	(4) 5.3*
C ₉	EC	(54) 4.7	(76) 6.3	(21) 7.1
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(12) 6.4
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(50) 7.0

*

Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

and also favour significantly more the notion of a general rather than a close type of surveillance of subordinates' efforts in the workplace.

As indicated in Table 21, which shows the combined data for Scale N, and in Table 24, which presents this data for Scale O, no significant trend toward more favourable attitudes toward the involvement of subordinates in Decision-Making (scale N), nor toward less control of subordinates' work (scale O), occurs for the French Canadian management group or for English Canadian managers between the two levels of exposure to human relations training. In Table 21, the French Canadian means increase (indicating a more favourable attitude toward participation) between the two degrees of training exposure in nine instances, drop in size in four cases, and remain the same in two. For the English Canadian group, the means are greater in six cases, diminish in eight, and remain the same in one case between little and much human relations training.

The data in Table 24 indicate that the mean score increases in nine cases (indicating less inclination to closely control the efforts of subordinates), decreases in five and remains the same in one instance between the limited and extensive degrees of training exposure for French Canadians, while for the English Canadian group, five means increase, five diminish, and five remain the same between these two levels of training.

It can be concluded from this pattern of results that since no

Table 7.21 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Participation in Decision-Making, Scale N, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	5.6	6.3 *	6.4	6.8		
C ₁	EC	6.9	6.7	7.7	7.7		
C ₃	FC	5.6	5.6	7.0	6.9		
C ₃	EC	6.9	7.3	7.5	8.1 *		
C ₁₀	FC	5.4	5.9	6.9	7.8		
C ₁₀	EC	6.2	6.5	7.6	7.3		
C ₄	FC	5.9	6.0	7.6	7.4	9.5	7.5 *
C ₄	EC	7.0	7.2	7.9	8.2	9.0	8.6
C ₅	FC	5.1	5.5	7.5	6.5		
C ₅	EC	6.5	6.4	7.6	7.0		
C ₂	FC	5.8	5.9	6.5	6.5	5.3	6.7
C ₉	EC	6.5	6.6	7.4	7.5	8.7	8.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC					6.3	8.5 *
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC					8.0	8.3

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

Table 7.24 - Distributions of Mean Scores on Supervisory Control, Scale 0, for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers who have Received from 0 to 60, and Those who have Received from 61 to 120 Hours or more of Human Relations Training, shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
		0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+	0-60	61-120+
C ₁	FC	4.1	4.3	5.3	5.7		
C ₁	EC	5.2	4.8	5.5	5.5		
C ₃	FC	4.7	4.7	5.4	5.9		
C ₃	EC	5.8	6.1	6.7	6.7		
C ₁₀	FC	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.5		
C ₁₀	EC	5.0	5.1	6.1	5.4*		
C ₄	FC	4.7	5.0	6.4	5.9	7.5	6.3*
C ₄	EC	5.4	5.2	6.1	6.9*	6.8	7.3
C ₅	FC	4.2	4.1	5.5	4.7		
C ₅	EC	5.0	5.0	5.9	5.9		
C ₂	FC	4.5	4.9*	5.1	5.3	5.4	5.3
C ₉	EC	4.7	4.7	6.8	6.3	7.2	7.1
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC					5.5	6.4
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC					6.2	7.0*

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

significant trend of differences occurs for either ethnic group between the two levels of training exposure, it would follow then that the large disparity existing between the two groups with respect to these two aspects of managerial style which was evident in Tables 5.8 and 5.9, remains the same despite relatively extensive exposure of these managers to human relations training. Thus the effect of training on the attitude dimensions of Component III, "Style of Management", is not a significant and important one.

In summary, the over-all effects of human relations training on the attitude dimensions of the three components of the leadership process outlined in Chapter V, are limited indeed. As the results have shown, there was no significant effect whatsoever on the attitudes of English Canadian managers in any of the attitude dimensions of the three components of the leadership process. This finding is not too surprising in view of the fact that, relative to their French Canadian colleagues, they already evince attitudes toward leadership which tend to be "problem free", at least in the sense that, as an ethnic group, their attitudes toward the management of people seem adapted to and in harmony with the demands of large organizations, and with the needs of other people within these organizations.

With respect to the French Canadian group, some effect of training was shown. Specifically, those French Canadian managers who have had extensive training showed a more positive, trusting attitude toward subordinates, and also tended to be less status-oriented than those who had been exposed to little or no training. Yet it appears that these significant

effects did not "carry over" in the sense of effecting changes in other aspects of their approach to leadership as embodied in the attitude dimensions of Components II and III. The French Canadian group remained, relative to their English Canadian colleagues, more prone to use pressure tactics on subordinates to fulfill production norms, and less disposed toward the target or standard-setting function of the managerial role. Though more favourable than their English Canadian colleagues to a generally pleasant and comfortable climate in the workplace, they are more inclined to take a "hard line" in their face-to-face dealings with subordinates. In addition, the French Canadian group, in sharp contrast to their English Canadian counterparts, remained less inclined to grant subordinates a "say" in work decisions, and more inclined to exert rigid control over their work efforts.

In short, though extensive human relations training does have some impact on the managerial philosophy of French Canadians, this impact seems to be strictly confined to these attitude dimensions of Component I, and even with respect to these two attitudes, the wide disparity between the two groups was not reduced to a significant degree. These over-all results serve to illustrate the profound impact of culture on the attitudes of managers, an impact which far overrides the effects of any human relations training program.

In terminating this discussion, it is interesting to recall the research findings for Conflict Scale D presented in Chapter IV (see page 283). In this analysis, it was revealed that the mean score of English

Canadian managers, while significantly higher than that of French Canadian managers, was not as high as it could or should be, indicating that the English Canadian group experienced a fair amount of conflict, feeling that they are as individuals, exploited and unappreciated in large business organizations. It was pointed out that this feeling prevails despite the extensive amount of human relations training undertaken by large industrial organizations in the past ten years. The results of the present analysis indicate the reason for this prevalence of conflict among English Canadians -- the fact that human relations training programs have no significant effect on the attitudes of these groups of managers.

It has been suggested with respect to the present results, that the major reason for the negligible effect of training on the attitudes of English Canadians (in contrast to the small but noticeable effect it had on French Canadian attitudes) was due to the fact that the typical English Canadian manager is relatively "problem free" with respect to his attitudes toward the leadership process, while there was much more "room for improvement" among French Canadian managers. In view of the findings for Conflict Scale D, however, it would seem that English Canadian managers are themselves certainly not entirely free of problems with respect to the management of people, that is, there is some room for improvement among members of this ethnic group as well if a climate is to be created within which individuals have little or no strong feelings of being exploited or being members of an impersonal environment. This suggests that it would be fruitful for organizations to review and evaluate

their approach to the whole issue of training in relation to problems of role conflict.

Religious Affiliation

It will be recalled in the analysis of the demographic characteristics of the sample presented in Chapter II that 98% of the French Canadian managers are catholic while 72% of the English Canadian managers are protestant. Though it was suggested that this question was a somewhat academic one, since cultural differences between the two groups actually included such important factors such as religion, it was nevertheless considered worthwhile to summarily investigate the extent to which differences in attitudes toward industrial leadership could be accounted for by this important cultural characteristic which serves to differentiate the two ethnic groups. Since the percentage of French Canadian protestant managers represented too few cases (only 30 managers) to permit a meaningful analysis within the French Canadian ethnic group, the exclusive focus will be upon the attitudes of English Canadian protestants, compared to those of English Canadian catholics (384 in number).

The same general type of analysis as was conducted for the effects of human relations training will be employed in this part of Chapter VII. That is, the mean scores of English Canadian catholics on the attitude scales will be compared to the mean scores of English Canadian protestants. The sign test will be employed to determine whether or not a significant trend of difference exists between the two sub-groups

of English Canadian managers on the attitude scales dealt with, and the confidence interval test utilized to determine whether or not differences of significant magnitude occur at particular levels within companies.

Unlike human relations training, whose effects on attitudes are more likely to be specific to certain types of attitude and dimensions (particularly to those included in the Management of People), the effects of one's religious upbringing are likely to be relatively broad and inclusive in scope. Hence, Religious Affiliation will be analyzed in terms of its effect on attitudes toward Organizational goals, and on Goal Conflict, in addition to the Management of People, since these attitudes encompass such broad factors as one's value system, one's obligations to society and one's philosophy with respect to other people. The Work Motivation dimension, however, was excluded from the analysis because of its highly specific relationship to the context of the manager's immediate job. As discussed in Chapter VI, our interest in the area of motivation was not to determine how an individual viewed these incentives from an idealistic standpoint, but rather how he felt about them in relation to his present job. Thus, any possible effect of religion on these highly specific attitudes risks the danger of being masked by local factors of the individuals' present work environment. It was felt that, if religion did have an effect on leadership attitudes, it would at any rate be more likely to have an effect on the more general principles reflected in the attitude statements of the other dimensions. Besides,

most of the content of the motivation section are present, though formulated differently, in these other dimensions. Thus, the effects of religion on attitudes toward money, for example, can be more accurately detected by relating religion to Scale G (personal gain) than to Statement A (salary) of the motivation section.

With regard to the Organizational Goals dimension, the first analysis consisted in comparing the mean scores of these two religious groups on the economic orientation index derived from the partial paired-comparison questionnaire.¹ The protestant group mean is 17.4 (σ 6.3) while that of the catholic group is 16.5 (σ 6.7). This difference is a statistically significant one and indicates that protestant managers tend to be somewhat more economic-oriented than catholic managers. In comparing the catholic mean to the fifteen French Canadian group means of Table 4.1, one finds that this catholic mean surpasses the French Canadian mean in nine of the fifteen comparisons. The trend is not a significant one, thereby revealing that religion does, to some extent, account for the cultural differences found to exist between the two ethnic groups on this particular point. It is interesting to note, however, that while the difference in means between protestant and catholic managers is .9 (17.4 - 16.5), the median difference between French and English Canadian managers, as revealed from the data of Table 4.1, is 1.7. Thus, religion obviously does not account for all of the difference between these two groups in terms of their respective degree of economic orientation.

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The reader is referred to pages 109 and 110 of Chapter IV for a description of this index.

Turning to an analysis of each goal statement, Table 25 presents a mean number of times a given goal was chosen over the other goals, for catholic and protestant managers.¹ It can be seen from the results of this table that significant differences between the means exist for four goal statements, namely: B, D, I and J. For Goals B and D, the protestant mean is higher than the catholic mean. Thus, protestant managers value somewhat more than do catholic managers the notion of providing good service and a good quality product to the customer. It will be remembered that English Canadian managers, as an ethnic group, valued these same goals more than did French Canadian managers (see tables 4.15 and 4.17). For Goals I and J, it is the catholic mean which is higher than that of the protestant group. Thus, catholic managers value somewhat more than do protestant managers the active participation of organizations in community affairs as well as the reduction of unemployment. The reader will recall that French Canadian managers valued these two goals more than did English Canadian managers (see tables 4.22 and 4.23). Thus, religion certainly is a contributing factor of differentiation for these four goal statements.

It is interesting to note, however, that cultural differences were also found to exist for Goals E, F, G and H. In fact, the two goals on which French and English Canadian managers differed most were Goals E (profit) and H (happiness of employees). Yet on these same two goals, as

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The reader is referred to pages 118 to 121 for a description of the measurement techniques used.

Table 7.25 - Means (M) and Standard Deviations (S.D.) of English Canadian Managers of Protestant and Catholic Religious Affiliation for Each of the Ten Organizational Goals.

GOALS	Protestant		Catholic	
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.
A	3.8	2.1	3.8	2.0
B *	6.7	1.6	6.4	1.8
C	4.4	1.8	4.3	1.8
D *	7.3	1.5	7.0	1.7
E	5.9	2.7	5.9	2.7
F	5.6	1.9	5.7	2.0
G	5.1	1.9	5.3	1.8
H	3.9	2.0	4.1	2.1
I *	2.0	1.4	2.2	1.3
J *	2.9	2.2	3.3	2.6

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean of protestant managers and that of catholic managers.

well as the other two, F and G, no differences were found between protestant and catholic managers, as seen in Table 25. Hence, it is apparent that although religious affiliation does contribute to the existence of differences in attitude between the two ethnic groups with respect to organizational goals, its contribution is limited to those goals on which the two ethnic groups disagree the least of those on which they do disagree.

In order to determine whether or not Religious Affiliation was related to the Goal Conflict scales or those of the leadership model, the means of English Canadian protestant managers and English Canadian catholic managers were compared for each scale at each level of each company. These distributions of ethnic group means for each scale are included in tables presented in Appendix F (one table per scale). For each scale, the number of times one religious group mean surpassed the other was computed and the sign test applied to determine the statistical significance of any observed trend of differences. Table 26 lists these trends for each of the Goal Conflict scales.

It can be seen from the results that two scales, D and E, reveal a significant trend of differences in the direction of protestant managers expressing somewhat less role conflict than catholic managers. Catholic managers tend to feel slightly more that industry is inhuman, exploitative, and that the pursuit of material gain is incompatible with the general welfare of society. However, an examination of these mean differences presented in Tables 7 and 9 of Appendix F reveals that the

Table 7.26 - Listing of Goal Conflict Scales, Showing for Each the Number of Times, Across Levels Within Companies, the Mean Scores of English Canadian Protestant Managers Exceed those of English Canadian Catholic Managers ($P > C$), the Number of Times the Means are Equal ($P = C$), and the Number of Times the English Canadian Catholic Mean Exceeds that of English Canadian Protestant Managers ($C > P$).

Goal Conflict Scales		$P > C$	$P = C$	$C > P$
A	Family	8	2	5
B	Family	6	1	8
C	Family	6	1	8
D	Individual	10	2	3*
E	Society	10	1	4*
F	Society	7	2	6
G	Personal Gain	8	1	6

* Indicates a statistically significant trend (sign test).

median difference is .1 for Scale D and .2 for Scale E. Though statistically significant, these differences tend to be small in magnitude. On the other hand, the median cultural differences for Scales D and E, as revealed from an analysis of the data presented in Tables 4.28 and 4.29 are .8 and 1.0 respectively. Thus, the ethnic differences for the two scales far outweigh the differences between catholic and protestant managers on the same two scales, thereby indicating that Religious Affiliation has little to do with the existence of these respective cultural differences.

Finally, Table 27 presents the same type of trend differences for the management scales of our leadership model. The results clearly indicate that none of these trends is statistically significant. Differences between French and English Canadian managers there are not in any way related to the fact that almost all French Canadian managers are of catholic religious affiliation while the majority of English Canadian managers are members of the protestant religion.

Thus, the effects of religious affiliation on differences in attitude between the two ethnic groups are limited indeed. In all but a few instances, no significant differences were found between English Canadian protestants and catholics in their attitudes toward the two broad dimensions of industrial leadership: Organizational Goals and the Management of People. Where these differences did exist, it was shown that religious affiliation contributed very little to the generally large

Table 7.27- Listing of Leadership Scales, Showing for Each the Number of Times, Across Levels Within Companies, the Mean Scores of English Canadian Protestant Managers Exceed those of English Canadian Catholic Managers ($P > C$), the Number of Times the Means are Equal ($P = C$), and the Number of Times the English Canadian Catholic Mean Exceeds that of English Canadian Protestant Managers ($C > P$).

Leadership Scales		$P > C$	$P = C$	$C > P$
H	Interpersonal Premises	4	3	8
H1	Interpersonal Premises	5	1	9
I	Status Needs	6	1	8
J	Task Orientation	4	2	9
K	Task Orientation	8	2	5
L	Consideration of Others	9	0	6
M	Consideration of Others	5	2	8
N	Participation in Decisions	9	0	6
O	Supervisory Control	10	0	5

cultural differences found to exist between the two ethnic groups.

In concluding this chapter then, it can be said that the extent of human relations training has no bearing on cultural differences between French Canadian and English Canadian managers, and the religious affiliation of these managers plays a very minor role in shaping the distinctly divergent views they hold with regard to the aspects of industrial leadership studied in this report.

Chapter VIII

The Effects of Biculturalism on Management Attitudes and the Degree of Job Satisfaction of French Canadian and English Canadian Managers

As pointed out in Chapter I (see page 15), it was decided that the research project should include an analysis of two types of data which were considered to be relevant to the interpretation of the findings for this study. These were, respectively: (1) the relationship between the degree of biculturalism among managers included in the study, and the attitudes of these managers toward industrial leadership, and (2) the general level of job satisfaction of managers.

Degree of Biculturalism and Attitudes toward Leadership

It was considered that the degree of one's exposure to, and familiarization with, a culture other than one's own might have some discernible effect on one's attitudes toward industry -- its aims and objectives and its leadership process. It is possible, for example, that the prolonged exposure of a manager to another culture might render him sympathetic to the views of that culture and to some extent "rub off" on him. As a consequence, he might to some extent adopt its values and outlook, and manifest attitudes which would be different than those he would possess had he not experienced this exposure. Conversely, this extensive exposure to another culture might conceivably have the opposite effect. An opportunity to mix with a culture other than one's own could convince a person that, in contrast to his own culture, the values and attitudes of the other one compare unfavorably indeed, and this realization could result in a stronger allegiance to his own ethnic milieu than would be the case had he not been familiar with the other one.

In short, exposure could very well have an effect on a manager's attitudes, whether this impact serves to reinforce his own cultural values or to modify his own thinking in the direction of the "other" culture.

In order to determine this relationship, it was necessary to develop an attitude scale which would measure the degree of one's biculturalism. Since this dimension is a rather broad one, it was important to include, in such a measure, statements which would tap the major forms that exposure to another culture can take, such as language, mass media (radio, T.V., newspapers and magazines), and personal contacts with members of the other culture, both inside and outside the work-setting. For this purpose, the statements reproduced below, showing for each the page number of the Questionnaire Booklet in which they can be found (see appendix Q.), were employed to derive the scale which would measure the degree of biculturalism for members of each ethnic group.

The questionnaire contained two forms (numbered separately) for each question, the one referring to the degree of one's contact with the particular aspect of the French Canadian culture, the other, the degree of one's contact with the particular aspect of the English Canadian culture. For the sake of convenience here, the two forms are combined into one. For convenience's sake also, the alternative answers presented for the respondent's choice are excluded in each question listed below.

Questions 22-23: "Do you read FRENCH (ENGLISH) newspapers and/or magazines?"(page 22).

Questions 24-25: "Approximately how many hours a WEEK do you spend listening to the radio or watching T.V. in FRENCH (ENGLISH)?" (page 23).

Questions 26-27: "Do you have contacts at present with French Canadians (English Canadians) AT WORK?" (page 23).

Questions 28-29: "At present, if you have French Canadian (English Canadian) friends or acquaintances OUTSIDE OF WORK (including work companions), how often do you get to meet at least ONE of them?" (page 23).

Questions 32-33-34-35:¹ "What is the approximate percentage (%) of time that you speak French (English) AT WORK?" (page 24).

Questions 36-37-38-39: "What is the approximate percentage (%) of time that you speak French (English) presently in YOUR OWN HOME?" (page 24).

Questions 40-41-42-43: "What was the approximate percentage (%) of time that French (English) was spoken in YOUR PARENTS' HOME, by yourself and the members of your immediate family (father, mother, brothers and sisters), during your years at school?" (page 25).

Questions 44-45-46-47: "What was the approximate percentage (%) of time that French (English) was spoken in YOUR WIFE'S OWN HOME, during her years at school?" (page 25).

Questions 58-59: "Have you ever attended a primarily French-speaking (English-speaking) school, college or university?" (page 28).

Questions 21-22: "What is the approximate percentage (%) of French Canadians (English Canadians) among the employees under GENERAL supervision?" (page 36).

Questions 23-24: "Before working for your present employer have you ever worked for one or many companies where the majority of management people spoke FRENCH (ENGLISH) at work?" (page 36).

Questions 25-26: "How frequently did you have contacts with French Canadians (English Canadians) during your youth (up to 18 years of age)?" (page 36)

Questions 27-28: "How many French Canadians (English Canadians) do you consider to be CLOSE PERSONAL FRIENDS of yours, if any?" (page 36)

1

The use of four numbers instead of two in some of these questions is for IBM coding purposes. The four numbers still refer to the single form of the question.

Questions 31-32: "How frequently do you write French (English)?" (page 37).

Questions 35-36: "How frequently do you read French (English)?" (page 37).

For these statements, the same procedure was followed as that used to derive scales for the Goal Conflict and Management of People dimensions of the study (see pages 135 to 143 of chapter IV for a review of this procedure), that is, the statements were intercorrelated separately for each ethnic group, and those statements which were found to be intercorrelated for the French Canadian group as well as for the English Canadian group were used as the core scale (or scale of common meaning) to measure the degree of biculturalism. Those statements which were interrelated for the French Canadian group but not for the English Canadian group, and the reverse, and of course, those statements which were not related to the other statements for either ethnic group were excluded from the scale.

Among the statements (listed above) used to derive a biculturalism scale, all but three were retained. Those eliminated were Statements 40-41 - 42-43,¹ and Statement 58-59, because they were interrelated with the other statements for the English Canadian group but not for the French Canadian group, and Statement 23-24, which was not interrelated with the other statements for either ethnic group. Thus,

¹ The reader is reminded that the use of four numbers instead of two for certain questions was for IBM coding purposes.

the Biculturalism Scale consisted of the remaining twelve statements listed on page 635 .¹

Table 1 shows a comparison of mean scores of managers of the two groups across companies and levels on this scale of biculturalism.² It can be seen in this table that the mean scores of French Canadian managers surpasses those of English Canadian managers at all fifteen levels, a trend which is highly significant. In fourteen of these fifteen comparisons, the means differ by a significant magnitude. These results show very dramatically that a strong cultural difference exists between the two groups. It is obvious from this data then, that French Canadian managers far exceed their English Canadian management counterparts in exposure to, and familiarization with, the other culture, that is, French Canadians as an ethnic group are much more bicultural than English Canadians. This finding is not at all surprising in view of the fact that French Canadians, being within the context of industry, a minority group at management levels, have found it necessary to expose themselves extensively to the English Canadian culture in the Province of Quebec, while their English Canadian counterparts, being in the majority position (and to a large extent controlling the economy of that province),

¹ For the intercorrelation matrices see Appendix K . The first matrix shows the intercorrelations between the statements used to develop the French Canadian scale of biculturalism (the statements reflecting exposure to the English Canadian culture). The second matrix presents the intercorrelations between the equivalent statements used to develop the English Canadian scale of biculturalism (the statements reflecting exposure to the French Canadian culture). ² The higher the mean score, the greater the degree of biculturalism among the managers.

Table 8.1 - Distributions of Mean Scores on the Biculturalism Scale
for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, Shown
by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) Within Companies.

		L ₁		L ₂		L ₃	
C ₁	FC	(99)	4.7	(33)	5.8 *		
C ₁	EC	(69)	4.4	(84)	3.7		
C ₃	FC	(113)	4.4 *	(77)	6.1 *		
C ₃	EC	(85)	2.2	(72)	4.1		
C ₁₀	FC	(73)	5.7 *	(19)	6.5 *		
C ₁₀	EC	(117)	3.4	(90)	3.8		
C ₄	FC	(141)	6.2 *	(107)	6.4 *	(6)	7.2 *
C ₄	EC	(144)	3.9	(163)	3.8	(59)	3.8
C ₅	FC	(142)	6.6 *	(43)	6.4 *		
C ₅	EC	(247)	3.5	(90)	4.0		
C ₂	FC	(291)	4.5 *	(237)	4.8 *	(16)	5.1 *
C ₉	EC	(79)	2.9	(107)	2.2	(27)	2.2
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	-	-	-	-	(20)	6.4 *
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	-	-	-	-	(100)	4.2

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

have not found it as necessary to familiarize themselves with the French Canadian culture. In addition, the English Canadian managers included in the research sample are much more spread out geographically, that is, a large proportion of them reside in provinces other than Quebec, as shown in Tables 2.3 and 2.4. Consequently, the opportunities the majority of this group have had to familiarize themselves with the French Canadian culture have been severely limited.

It should be mentioned here that the data presented in Table 1 serve to lend validity to the bicultural scale utilized in this study, especially in view of the comments just made. The wide disparity in means between the two ethnic groups reflects an essentially true state of affairs with respect to the differential degree of biculturalism existing among the managers included in the study. Had the means not been significantly different, there would certainly have been serious doubts about the validity or usefulness of the scale.

However, as pointed out in the beginning of this chapter, the question of really major importance is the extent to which the relationship exists between the degree of biculturalism of managers and their attitudes toward the two dimensions of industrial leadership: Organizational Goals and the Management of People.¹ Considering the Organizational Goals dimension, it was of interest first of all to determine

¹ Here also, the data relating to Work Motivation was excluded from consideration for reasons outlined on pages 623 and 624 of Chapter VII.

the relationship between the degree of biculturalism and the extent to which managers of each ethnic group value the economic goals of business. For each ethnic group, a correlation co-efficient (Pearson r) was computed between the scores on the biculturalism scale, and the scores of managers of each ethnic group on the partial paired-questionnaire which measures the degree of the managers' preference for Economic (over Social-Humanitarian) Goals.¹ The correlations between the two scores on these measures were found to be .12 for the French Canadian group, and -.08 for the English Canadian group. Both of these correlations fall below the standard established as the minimum for considering a relationship to be of minimal consequence.² These results indicate that no relationship exists between managers' degree of biculturalism and the extent to which they value the economic goals of business enterprises. Thus, for French Canadians, the extensiveness of their exposure to the English Canadian culture bears no relationship to the degree to which they consider economic goals to be of value or importance to them. Similarly, the degree to which English Canadian managers are in touch with the French Canadian mentality does not systematically affect their attitudes toward the goals of business enterprises.

The next matter for research investigation is the relationship between the degree of biculturalism and the responses of these managers

¹ The reader is referred to pages 110 and 111 of Chapter IV for a description of this index. ² The reader is referred to page 1 of Appendix L for further details.

to: (a) the priorities they assign to each of these objectives, (b) the degree of conflict they perceive between organizational goals and their personal goals and other aspects of life, and (c) the attitude dimensions of the three components of the Management of People. These data are presented in Table 2, which shows for each ethnic group Pearson r correlations between the scores on the biculturalism scale and the scores on the goal priorities, conflict scales and management scales.

It can be seen in this table that only one correlation barely reaches the minimum level of .15 previously referred to (see appendix L). Thus there is, for French Canadian managers, a slight relationship between degree of biculturalism and amount of perceived compatibility between organizational goals and the welfare of society (see scale E).¹ The relationship remains a very tenuous one, however, and on the whole, the research findings of this table clearly revealed that for all practical purposes, within the bicultural setting of English and French Canadian managers, exposure to the values and norms of the other culture in no way influences one's attitudes, opinions, or personal values regarding the goals of industrial organizations, the degree of conflict one perceives between these goals and other relevant life goals, nor one's personal ideology of leadership practices in a superior-subordinate

¹ For all correlations reported in this chapter, the smallest N (number of managers) is 768. Thus, many of these correlations are, in fact, statistically significant from 0. They are all, however, too low to be interpreted as meaningful relationships.

Table 8.2 - Distribution of Correlations (r) Between the Scores on the Biculturalism Scale, and those of the Goal Conflict Scales (A to G), the Management of People Scales (H to O), and the Strength of feeling Index for Organizational Goals (A to J), Shown for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers.

SCALE		FC r	EC r	GOALS		FC r	EC r
A	Family	-.01	.02	A		.07	-.02
B	Family	-.09	.11	B		.06	-.06
C	Family	.07	-.03	C		.05	.03
D	Individual	.09	-.02	D		.05	-.07
E	Society	.15	-.02	E		.14	-.08
F	Society	.03	.02	F		-.05	.02
G	Personal Gain	.14	-.05	G		-.09	.03
H	Interpersonal Premises	-.09	.08	H		-.14	.07
H1	Interpersonal Premises	-.05	-.03	I		-.05	.04
I	Status Needs	-.11	-.01	J		-.11	.12
J	Task Orienta- tion	-.02	.04				
K	Task Orienta- tion	.04	-.05				
L	Consideration of Others	.10	-.00				
M	Consideration of Others	-.01	-.03				
N	Participation in Decision- Making	.13	-.05				
O	Supervisory Control	.07	-.07				

relationship. The importance of this finding cannot be over-estimated. It indubitably lends veracity to the research results reported in Chapters IV and V, which clearly showed that, though the two ethnic groups are in constant interaction with each other within bicultural settings in industry, there also, the two groups hold highly divergent views toward the importance of organization goals and the degree of conflict expressed about these goals relative to other aspects of their lives, as well as toward their respective conceptions of the leadership process in industry. In addition, the results reported here lend validity to the argument presented at the conclusion of Chapter IV concerning the fallacy of conducting management training sessions along bicultural lines (see pages 237 to 242). Indeed the present results indicate that even when members of the two groups have had extensive exposure to each other's culture, including each other's language, the quite different values and attitudes of the two groups remain entirely intact.

It is obvious, then, that bicultural exposure is not and cannot be an effective remedy to the problem of bridging the wide gap which exists between these two ethnic groups. Rather, the solution lies, as suggested in Chapter IV, in providing the French Canadian with opportunities for self-examination, for an intensive scrutiny of his own attitudes with respect to industrial life, and the conflicts he experiences within this context as a French Canadian. Only in this manner will he be in a position to decide for himself whether or not he truly should

aspire to make industrial life a way of life. He has not as yet made this important decision, a decision which can only be taken on the basis of self-determination. Perhaps this is what, more or less consciously, the French Canadian is alluding to through the medium of his slogan "Maîtres Chez-Nous". Perhaps he has not been able to feel the necessary degree of autonomy within the context of present bicultural organizations to make that decision. At any rate, if French Canadians are to succeed in industry, they must orient themselves on their own in this regard, and this cannot effectively be accomplished by exemplary exposure to the industrialized, economic-oriented mentality of his English Canadian counterpart.

The Job Satisfaction of Managers

As mentioned in the introductory chapter (see page 15), there is a prevailing opinion that French Canadians experience little satisfaction in an industrial work setting, particularly one predominantly Anglo-Saxon in ownership and management. It was of interest, therefore, to determine the degree to which members of this ethnic group, in contrast to their English Canadian counterparts, derive gratification from work in industry. Though many inferences can be made about the levels of satisfaction of the two groups on the research findings presented in Chapters IV, V and VI, it was considered worthwhile to present to managers of both ethnic groups a few direct questions pertaining to their general level of job satisfaction.

In order to do so, a series of statements were developed from which was derived a common scale which measures the degree of satisfaction one experiences from one's job. Again, the same statistical analyses were conducted in the development of this scale. For the reader's convenience, these statements are reproduced below, showing for each the page number of the Questionnaire Booklet in which they can be found (see appendix Q). For the sake of convenience, only the first and last alternative answers presented for the respondent's choice are included in each statement listed below.

Statement 68: "I find my job interesting:" (from "never" to "all the time", page 29).

Statement 70: "All in all, to what extent are you satisfied with the amount of pressure you have in your job?" (from "not at all satisfied" to "extremely satisfied", page 30).

Statement 74: "All in all, to what extent are you satisfied with your chances for promotion to a better job or a higher level in this company?" (from "not at all satisfied" to "extremely satisfied", page 30).

Statement 45: "What are your plans for the future?" (from "I intend to leave this company" to "as far as I can say presently, I would like to remain indefinitely with this company", page 39).

Statement 47: "All in all, to what extent are you satisfied with the amount of influence you have on those decisions made by your superior that affect your work?" (from "not at all satisfied" to "extremely satisfied", page 39).

An analysis of the intercorrelations among these statements for each ethnic group¹ revealed that all of them were related to each other with sufficient strength to be included in the scale. Table 3 shows a compari-

¹

The intercorrelation matrices are included in Appendix K.

son of the mean scores of managers for each of the two ethnic groups across companies and levels of management on this Job Satisfaction Scale. The results indicate that the English Canadian mean surpasses that of French Canadian managers in seven group comparisons. Conversely, the French Canadian mean is superior to the English Canadian one in six comparisons, the means being equal in the remaining two cases. This trend is obviously not a statistically significant one. It is apparent that, on the whole, both ethnic groups express a generally strong degree of satisfaction with their jobs (no mean is below 7.5, the standard previously set to interpret these scale results).

These results, taken at face value, indicate that managers of both groups are highly satisfied with their jobs. However, there is considerable room to doubt that these findings reflect an inherent and enduring sense of gratification on the part of French Canadians with regard to their work. With respect to this group, the research findings of Chapter IV, indicating that members of the French Canadian culture are little identified with the economic function in large organizations, and experience relatively high level of role conflict with respect to organizational goals, would make one skeptical of the pattern of results just shown in this chapter. The relative degree of mistrust they evince toward the motives of others in the workplace, and the insecurity they manifest in positions of managerial authority, trends which were indicated in Chapters V and VI, raises still further doubt that the results reported here are indicators of the degree of happiness French Canadians experience in

Table 8.3 - Distributions of Mean Scores on the Job Satisfaction Scale for French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, Shown by Company (C) and by Organizational Levels (L) Within Companies.

		L ₁	L ₂	L ₃
C ₁	FC	(43) 7.9	(24) 7.9	
C ₁	EC	(56) 8.1	(72) 8.0	
C ₃	FC	(120) 8.2 *	(75) 8.1	
C ₃	EC	(21) 7.6	(58) 8.2	
C ₁₀	FC	(67) 8.0 *	(20) 8.0	
C ₁₀	EC	(102) 7.6	(84) 8.0	
C ₄	FC	(147) 7.5 *	(107) 8.0	(6) 9.0 *
C ₄	EC	(121) 7.7	(168) 7.9	(55) 8.5
C ₅	FC	(139) 7.8	(42) 8.3	
C ₅	EC	(135) 7.9	(88) 8.3	
C ₂	FC	(299) 7.8	(243) 8.1	(15) 8.3
C ₉	EC	(71) 7.9	(105) 8.0	(25) 8.5
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	FC	- -	- -	(19) 8.7
C _{1, 3, 10, 5}	EC	- -	- -	(101) 8.5

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

their work roles. Indeed, it is difficult to reconcile, to give only one example, a strong feeling that industry is inhuman and exploitative on the one hand, and at the same time, have deep feelings of satisfaction with one's job.

The problem undoubtedly lies in the content of the statements themselves. It could be that with respect to Statement 47, the French Canadian is satisfied with the amount of influence he has on decisions, for the simple reason that he does not really want much influence, but rather, prefers power over subordinate members of the organization, as indicated in Table 6.7. The expression of satisfaction with Statement 45 might well reflect the strong security needs of the French Canadian (again, as indicated in table 6.7), and this need, rather than satisfaction with the work he is doing, determines his response to this statement. It is possible that the French Canadian could be satisfied with the amount of pressure in his job (statement 70) if in fact, the pressures were not burdensome, again, without experiencing deep gratification with the job itself. The expression of high job satisfaction with respect to Statement 74 is inconceivable in view of the very strong strivings he shows for the promotion incentive (see table 6.7), and it is equally doubtful that a "satisfied" response to the statement on job interest (statement 68) reflects inherent satisfaction with work, especially in view of the findings of Chapters IV and V.

In short, it could be that the responses of French Canadians reflect limited aspirations on their part, and the relatively high satis-

faction they show on the Job Satisfaction Scale may well be an expression of extrinsic, rather than intrinsic job satisfaction. It may also be an indication that French Canadian managers are withholding their feelings relative to the lack of basic satisfaction they actually do experience in their jobs.

The results reported here then, cast some doubt on the use of such direct questions of job satisfaction, measures which appear to elicit only superficial responses, and fail to truly reflect the more profound feelings and values the individual attaches to his job. These deeper feelings can only be assessed with the use of a depth study, using indirect questions such as the ones described in the other chapters of this research report. The danger in the use of direct, "surface" measures, such as the ones reported here, is that they do not distinguish extrinsic contentment from the deeper, intrinsic aspects of one's satisfaction, and thus the results often lead one to erroneously believe that everyone is happy in his job and that no real problems of adjustment exist. The important point here is that in a bicultural setting, "good" results, yielding high scores by both ethnic groups on surveys which utilize such direct questions, can often be misleading. One is never sure if one is measuring simple contentment or basic satisfaction on the job. This can lead of course, to problems of rapport between members of the two ethnic groups working side by side in an industrial setting. For instance, results of a direct question survey can lead English Canadians to feel that, after all, "everything is all right" with their French Cana-

dian colleagues, and no major problems of frustration really exist for this latter group. This external expression of contentment, (but internal state of frustration) among French Canadians is very likely a source of the confusion reflected in the question so often heard among English Canadians: "What do they really want?"

To summarize the findings of this chapter, it is clear that the degree of biculturalism among managers bears no relationship to the attitudes these managers hold toward the goals of industrial organizations, the degree of conflict they perceive between these goals and other life goals, nor to their ideology with respect to the management of people. It was suggested from these results that exposure to one another's culture cannot be expected to bridge the gap which exists between these two groups in their leadership attitudes toward industry. With respect to job satisfaction, it was found that managers of both ethnic groups expressed a high degree of satisfaction with their jobs, and no differences were found to exist between them on this attitude dimension. The researchers expressed serious doubts, on the basis of these results, that the direct question approach to the assessment of job satisfaction was a useful and meaningful one for an adequate understanding of the true level of frustration of managers regarding their work.

Chapter IX

Cultural Differences in Leadership

Among Small Business Organizations

As mentioned in the introductory chapter of this report (see page 17), it was felt that small business enterprises, being more typical of French Canadian business as a whole, would more clearly reflect the basic attitudes of members of this culture toward leadership in industry. Thus, it was considered of importance to include managers from these types of business in any contrast of the attitudes of managers and of the two ethnic groups. The major point of interest in the study of small business then, was to see if the differences in attitudes between French Canadian and English Canadian managers found in large bicultural organizations, in which the two groups work closely together, would also occur when the two groups work to a large extent apart from each other, as they do in small French Canadian owned business or English Canadian owned enterprises.

In this chapter, the problem of sampling is discussed, including a consideration of the basic issues dealt with, the decisions made with regard to these issues, and the procedure followed in the selection of small companies and managers within these companies. The general procedure employed in the conduct of the study is then described, along with the techniques of measurement employed in the analysis of the data. The research results are then presented, along with an interpretation and discussion of these results, particularly in terms of their relevance to the findings of the study of large organizations.

Selection of the Population

Sampling Considerations

There were several factors to consider in the selection of the population to be studied. First, it was essential: (a) to decide upon what particular size criterion to employ, and then to set upper and lower limits of size according to this criterion before any selection could be made, since no clear-cut and widely-accepted definition of what constitutes a small company presently exists, (b) to consider whether to include companies representing primary, secondary or tertiary industry (or all of these), (c) to decide whether to include companies which were specifically of French Canadian and English Canadian ownership, or whether to include companies irrespective of the ethnic origin of their owners, and to select English Canadian and French Canadian managers from these, and (d) to consider the geographical location of the companies to be included in the study, that is, whether to confine the study to organizations within the Province of Quebec or to include other locations across Canada as well.

The second major issue to be dealt with was whether to include all of the companies of the specified population in the research study, or to draw a sample of companies from this population. Thirdly, and finally, the comprehensiveness of the coverage of the management force within each selected company was to be considered, that is, whether to include the total management group in each small organization, or whether to select certain managers within each one for inclusion in the study.

These latter two issues are, of course, related ones, since the inclusion of all companies in the population would make it unfeasible to include the total management force within them, obviously because of the enormous numbers of managers involved.

The following general decisions were made relative to these three basic issues. First, with regard to the selection of the population, the term "small company" tends to be an exceedingly broad one, covering any company from a two or three-man operation to organizations employing many hundreds of people, depending upon one's definition of small. However, it was decided to rely upon the definition and classification system utilized by Raynauld(1965) to set the lower limit for the designation: small company. His list of companies includes those with a minimum of fifty employees (with the exception of clothing, furniture and miscellaneous companies, in which a lower limit of twenty-five was used). It was judged by the researchers that the work force of one thousand five hundred employees would constitute the upper limit of a small company since, beyond this limit, the number of French Canadian companies is virtually nil. Size of work force was thus the criterion employed to define the population for our study, with the upper and lower limits of numbers of employees being twenty-five to one thousand five hundred. It should be mentioned here that other criteria could possibly have been employed to define a small company, such as "total sales volume", for example, but it was beyond the scope of this study to have dealt with the problem that the use of a purely economic criterion such as this one would have involved.

The decision was made to include only secondary industry. To have included companies belonging to the tertiary classification (involving such organizations as restaurants or laundries in which the work force tends to be very small and the problems of management rather unique) would have presented a most unwieldy problem for a limited study such as this one. The great majority of companies in the primary division are large ones, and the smaller ones tend to be very widely scattered and remote geographically.

Regarding ethnic ownership, Raynauld's list indicates whether a company is of Canadian or foreign ownership and whether the firm is of French or English-speaking origin. It was decided to include only companies of Canadian ownership and to exclude from the study all companies owned by foreign interests, regardless of whether their management groups were predominantly composed of French or English Canadians. This was done because, as mentioned earlier (see p. 652 and p. 17), the major interest in this study lies in an investigation of French and English Canadian managers working separately, rather than together, as in large organizations. The list does not specify, however, whether the firms are French or English Canadian in ownership, in terms of our definitions of ethnic origin found on page 53 of this report. Thus, there could exist, among the companies included in our sample, some who are Canadian but of an ethnic group other than French or English, as previously defined. These companies were discouraged from answering the questionnaire since our definitions of French and English Canadian are outlined on page 21 of the Questionnaire Booklet (see Appendix Q). Nevertheless, in order to guarantee that our final sample would be exclusively composed of French and English Canadian managers, further precautions (outlined on p. 665) were taken during the editing phase of processing the data.

The decision was made to confine the study of small businesses to the Province of Quebec only. This was done because the major interest of the study was in a comparison of the two ethnic groups within the same milieu, and as is well known, few if any companies of French Canadian ownership exist outside Quebec.

With respect to the second major issue to be dealt with, the question of the inclusion of a sample or a population of companies, the decision was made to incorporate all of the companies which could feasibly be involved in the study, rather than to attempt to draw a representative sample of companies. As will be described a little later in the chapter, a "mail-out" survey procedure was used which enabled the researchers to cover a large number of companies with a moderate amount of effort, time and expense. Hence, it was deemed advisable to set as the initial target, all companies within the limits of size, secondary type, ethnic ownership, and geographical location outlined above. To have chosen the alternative possibility -- to select a representative sample of companies, would not only have been an extremely difficult procedural task, due to the limited information available on all the factors which would have to be considered in this selection, but the inevitable refusals of many companies to cooperate in the study would have run the risk of excessively reducing the total amount of data which would have been available for analysis.

Finally, in considering the comprehensiveness of the coverage of the management group within the companies, it was decided to select a very limited number, rather than many or all management personnel in

each company to be included in the study. To have included all or a significantly large number of management personnel in each company would have extended the scope of the study far beyond what was originally intended, since it would have involved the solicitation of several thousand individuals in many different organizations. Indeed, it would have been necessary to make direct contact with all of these companies in order to make this type of penetration into their management work force. Such contacts would have been prohibitively costly and time-consuming.

To recapitulate, it was planned to include all companies composed of from twenty-five to one thousand five hundred employees, representing secondary industry, of French Canadian or English Canadian ownership, located within the Province of Quebec, and to include a very limited number of managers within each of these companies, the details of which will be given a little later in the chapter. It should be pointed out here that the purpose of this study was not to make an extensive and exhaustive study of the attitudes of managers in small businesses, per se. The aim of this part of the total research was, as stated previously, to replicate in small companies the study of the attitudes of the two groups in large industrial organizations.

Selection of Companies

Table 1 shows the distribution prepared by Raynauld (1965) of companies of both French Canadian and English Canadian ownership which have at least twenty-five employees. It was from this set of data that

Table 9.1 - Number of Companies of French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Ownership Having at Least Twenty-Five Employees, According to Categories of Secondary Industry in the Province of Quebec.

Categories	Number of F.C. Companies	Number of E.C. Companies
Food and beverage	93	56
Tobacco products	1	2
Rubber	2	6
Leather	46	54
Textile	9	77
Knitting mills	14	43
Clothing	68	538
Wood	68	25
Furniture and fixture	59	64
Paper and allied	18	53
Printing, publishing and allied	29	41
Primary metal	6	10
Metal fabricating	34	46
Machinery	10	8
Transportation equip- ment	8	9
Electrical products	6	21
Non-metallic mineral products	12	22
Chemical and chemical products	7	16
Miccellaneous man- ufacturing	30	65
Totals	520	1,156

the population of companies to be included in our study was delineated. It was necessary first to eliminate from this basic list those companies within each industry in which the total work force was in excess of one thousand five hundred employees (the upper limit set for the definition of a small company). This was done with the use of the listing of industries prepared by Scott's Quebec Industrial Directory (1964), which specified the exact numbers of employees in these (and other) companies. In addition, it was found necessary to exclude from consideration companies within the category "Clothing industries". This was done because of the heavy over-representation of English Canadian-owned companies of these types of industries (almost half of the total of English Canadian-owned companies in secondary industry in Quebec), and the resulting strong biasing effect which any peculiarities in the questionnaire responses of clothing company managers would have on the total results of the survey. Another reason for excluding these types of companies was the fact that they included a large number of organizations with work forces at or close to the minimum desirable (twenty-five employees). Inclusion of clothing companies thus would have resulted in an inordinate number of "very small" companies, that is, it would have significantly reduced the range of size of companies within the small company population.

It was deemed necessary to eliminate four other types of companies from Raynauld's listing. Small companies belonging to large holding companies were excluded because, in effect, these small companies would not be separate enterprises, but parts of larger companies. Cooperatives were excluded

from consideration because of the peculiarities of their organizational structure and the fact that their management policies and practices very likely were not representative of the large proportion of small profit-making companies in the secondary division. Newspapers were excluded (from the Printing classification of industries), because of the risk of undue publicity which might well have been given the research study. Finally, all small companies whose head office was situated outside of the Province of Quebec were eliminated because of the special effects that the policies of a head office in another province of Canada might have had on the attitudes of managers within the Province of Quebec.

The distribution of small companies (according to the type of secondary industry) of French Canadian and English Canadian ownership in Quebec which were retained and which formed the population of companies to be included in the research study is shown in Table 2. As indicated in this table, a total of 367 French Canadian companies, and 427 English Canadian companies were included.

Although the number of French Canadian and English Canadian companies within the secondary industry is proportionately about the same in most industries, the differences are fairly large in four of them. The population of French Canadian companies is more highly saturated with companies from the Food and Beverage industries and the Wood industries than is the case for the population of English Canadian companies, while the reverse is true for companies within the Knitting mills and

Table 9.2 - Number and Corresponding Percentages of Companies of French Canadian and English Canadian Ownership Having at Least Twenty-Five Employees, According to Categories of Secondary Industry in the Province of Quebec, which were Included in the Study of Small Business Organizations.

Categories	French Canadian Companies		English Canadian Companies	
	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages
Food and beverage	71	19.3%	33	7.7%
Tobacco products	0	0.0%	1	.2%
Rubber	1	.2%	6	1.4%
Textiles	9	2.5%	49	11.5%
Knitting mills	13	3.5%	37	8.7%
Wood	33	8.9%	17	4.0%
Furniture and fixture	57	15.5%	61	14.3%
Paper and allied	16	4.3%	13	3.0%
Printing, publishing and allied	19	5.2%	30	7.0%
Primary metal	6	1.6%	3	.7%
Metal fabricating	33	9.0%	32	7.5%
Machinery	7	1.9%	4	.9%
Transportation equipment	6	1.6%	5	1.2%
Electrical products	4	1.0%	15	3.5%
Non-metallic mineral products	12	3.3%	10	2.3%
Chemical and chemical products	7	1.9%	8	1.9%
Miscellaneous manufacturing	30	8.2%	52	12.2%
Totals	367	100.0%	427	100.0%

Textile industries.

There is, of course, no real reason to believe that differences between the two ethnic managerial groups in terms of the types of secondary industry they work in could account for any attitudinal differences found to exist between them, especially if these differences are in the same direction as those found in the study of large organizations. One differential characteristic which might have an effect however, is worth mentioning. It was found that the percentage of English Canadian companies whose head office is listed in the city of Montreal is 82% (352 companies), while those listed outside of the city of Montreal is 18% (75 companies). In contrast, the percentage of French Canadian companies whose head office is in Montreal is only 35% (129 companies), while those listed in other areas constitute 65% (238 companies) of the total population of French Canadian companies. It is clear that English Canadian managers are more likely to reflect the mentality of a large industrial and cosmopolitan centre, while French Canadian managers are obviously more likely to reflect the attitudes of a more regional, small town mentality.

On the basis of what is generally known about the characteristics of these two mentalities, one would expect to find the former to be more economic-oriented or materialistic in their attitudes, as well as possessing a less Theory X orientation and less pronounced status needs than the latter, thereby resulting in differences as well with regard to the other components of the leadership process along the lines of the dynamic relationships between the three components, as described in Chapter V. If

anything then, one would expect the differences between the two ethnic groups to be as large, if not larger than those revealed in the study of large industrial organizations. There is one limitation to this inference, however. Although the information given specifies the location of the head office, this does not mean that the manager who answered the questionnaire resides there. He could easily be located in a plant or office situated in a different area. Our inference therefore assumes that the influence of the head office is a large and pervasive one.

Selection of Individuals within Companies

Since, as mentioned earlier in the chapter, the decision was made to include very few, rather than a large number of managers within each company selected for the study, it was deemed important to select those managers who performed functions which encompassed large and important aspects of each company's total operations. In addition, it was felt that these positions should be as comparable as possible from one company to the next. Specifically, it was decided that two managers of each company be asked to participate in the study and in order to meet the above mentioned criteria, the President of each company was asked to distribute a questionnaire to: 1. the General Manager and 2. the Production or Manufacturing or Plant Manager depending upon which title was used in the company. Although these two positions existed in a majority of companies selected for this study, in some, only one of them did. Most of these latter companies had a Sales or Marketing Manager

however, and he accordingly was designated as the individual to whom the questionnaire should be given. In the event that two of these positions did not exist, or if the President himself held one of them, it was specified that he should complete one of them and distribute the other one to the manager holding the remaining position of the three mentioned above. Finally, it was suggested that, should none of these three positions exist (a remote possibility), the President should complete one questionnaire himself and have any other senior manager of his choosing complete the other one.¹

Thus, the total numbers of French Canadian and English Canadian managers to be included in the study were, respectively, 734 and 854 (two managers in each of the 367 French Canadian companies, and two in each of the 427 English Canadian companies). Of the original 734 questionnaires forwarded to the 367 French Canadian companies, 34 of them (from 17 companies) were returned by the Post Office, indicating that these companies had moved or were closed. Thus the total number of French Canadian companies actually included in the study was 350 and the number of managers involved, 700. For the English Canadian companies, of the original 854 questionnaires forwarded to the 427 companies, 80 of them (from 40 companies) were returned by the Post Office, making the total number of English Canadian companies actually included in the survey 387, and the number of managers, 774. Of the total of 700 French Canadian

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A copy of this and other letters used in the mail-out to be described shortly, are shown in Appendix N .

managers actually included in the study, 166 returned completed questionnaires, making a total return rate of 23.7%. Of the total of 774 English Canadian managers involved, 203 questionnaires were completed, for a return of 26.2%.

From the 166 questionnaire booklets returned from French Canadian managers, and the 203 returned by English Canadian managers, it was necessary to eliminate a number of these according to essentially the same criteria employed in the study of large organizations (see chapter II pages 33 to 40), namely: Non-Canadians (18), females (7), those whose mother tongue was other than French or English (27), and an additional one, those whose mother tongue was different from that of the owners of the company. Forty-three questionnaires fell into this category. That is, only French-speaking managers of those employed by French Canadian companies, and only English-speaking managers employed by English Canadian companies were retained. Thus, the final numbers of French Canadian and English Canadian managers included in the study were, respectively, 153 and 121.¹

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It should be noted here that it was not possible to ascertain which secondary industries were represented by those managers who comprised the final group. Information of this type was not solicited in the Questionnaire Booklet in order to preserve the anonymity of the managers and/or companies. It was the opinion of the researchers that managers of small companies would be most reluctant to return a completed questionnaire including any question, no matter how indirect, which might lead to a revelation of the identity of their company. As it turned out, a good indication of this reluctance was revealed by the fact that, in contrast to managers of large organizations, many completed booklets were returned in a plain, unmarked envelope rather than the one with which they had been provided for this purpose.

General Procedure and Measurement Techniques Employed

It was decided that due to the enormous amount of time and expense which would have been entailed had personal contacts been made with companies included in the study, the only feasible method to employ in obtaining data from the managers of the small companies would be to mail out questionnaires to each of them, hence this procedure was followed. Naturally, it was expected that the rate of return of the questionnaires would be lower than would have been the case had personal visits and in-plant administration of the questionnaire been conducted. The usual rate of return of questionnaires in mail-out surveys is between thirty to forty percent, and there was, in our study, the possibility of an even lower rate of return, because of the length of the questionnaire used. In view of this problem, it was absolutely essential to do everything possible to ensure the motivation of the managers to promptly complete and return the questionnaire, and the specific procedural steps, outlined below, were designed to ensure the fullest cooperation of these managers so that the return rate of the questionnaire would be as large as possible.

(1) In each of the two questionnaires to be forwarded to the two managers designated above in the companies, a covering letter was prepared and included, explaining the purpose of the survey, urging their cooperation in the study, and specifying the instructions to be followed in answering the questionnaire.

(2) These two questionnaires were enclosed in an envelope and forwarded to the President or Director of each company, along with a

covering letter from the Research Director of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism again, explaining to the President the purpose of the survey, asking for his cooperation, and requesting that he distribute the questionnaire to the managers according to the instructions outlined above. French language versions of the questionnaire were, of course, forwarded to those companies of French Canadian ownership, while English language versions were sent to companies owned by English Canadians.

(3) Following a period of two weeks, follow-up letters were forwarded from this same senior officer of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, to the President of each company, urging the completion and return of the booklets if they had not already been sent back. Six weeks following the mailing-out of the questionnaires, the data-gathering phase of the study was considered terminated, since the rate of return during the sixth week dropped to less than one percent.

Precisely the same dimensions of Industrial Leadership were investigated in this study of small business enterprises as were dealt with in the study of large business organizations, namely: Organizational Goals, the Management of People, and Work Motivation. Consequently, precisely the same measurement techniques which were employed in the study of large organizations were also used in this study. It should be pointed out, however, that in the research conducted in large organizations, major attention was focussed on a study "in depth" of each of these orga-

nizations. Yet at the same time, it was considered of crucial importance to determine whether cultural differences existed between the two ethnic groups in their attitudes, that is, the aim was also to generalize the results to cultural differences. Hence the sign test was employed to determine attitude differences which existed across all companies in the study.

In contrast, there was no interest in the depth study of any particular small company, and in fact, it would not have been possible to conduct such a study because of the small number of management personnel in these organizations. The exclusive concern was the degree to which attitude differences found between the two ethnic groups within these companies could be generalized to cultural differences. Thus, by taking the two managers in each company and combining all those belonging to the same ethnic group, and contrasting their attitudes to those of the combined members of the other ethnic group, it was possible to generalize attitude differences between members of these two groups to cultural differences. Thus, the sign test was not the appropriate statistic to use. The confidence interval statistic, which determined the significance of the magnitude of differences between the attitudes of the two groups was applicable, however, and was accordingly employed.

It should also be noted that in the study of small companies, the attitude scales analyzed in each of the three dimensions of the study (goals, management and motivation) were the same as those which were derived in the large organization study, hence no intercorrelations among

the statements in the questionnaire were necessary in this present study. Since the study of small business organizations was simply intended to provide us with an opportunity to see whether the major cultural trends of differences found in large companies would hold as well for small companies, a detailed analysis of each attitude statement comprising each scale was not warranted. This study was therefore limited to contrasting the two groups on the major scale dimensions identified in the study of large organizations. For review of the methods of statistical analysis employed in the study of small business organizations, the reader is referred to the "Measurement Techniques Employed" section of Chapters IV, V and VI.

Research Results

The Evaluation of Goals

In this section, analyses similar to the ones conducted in the large organizations study were made so that meaningful contrasts could be drawn between the results of these two studies. The results are reported in the order presented in Chapter IV.

(A) Preference for Value Systems:

Economic Versus Social-Humanitarian Goals

In large organizations, it was found that English Canadian managers valued economic goals significantly more than did French Canadian managers. Based on data obtained from 113 English Canadian managers, it was found that in small business organizations, the mean number of times that Economic Goals were chosen over Social-Humanitarian ones is 20.4

(σ 4.3). The corresponding French Canadian mean is only 17.2 (σ 6.0), based on the responses of 141 managers. The difference between these two means is statistically significant beyond the .03 level of confidence, thereby indicating that in small companies as well, English Canadian managers value economic goals to a significantly greater extent than do French Canadian managers, hence confirming the existence of a strong cultural difference between these two groups along these lines.

It is interesting to note that in contrasting the French Canadian mean of small business organizations (17.2) to the over-all French Canadian mean of large organizations (13.7, see page 152), the managers of small businesses are significantly more economic-oriented than are their counterparts in large organizations.¹ The same applies to the comparison between the English Canadian managers. The English Canadian mean in small businesses is 20.4 while the over-all mean in large organizations is only 16.3.¹ These findings are not surprising in view of the fact that in small business, the managers who were asked to respond to the questionnaire are, in fact, members of high middle or top management. It was established in Chapter IV that the higher the level, the more economic-oriented the managers are (see pages 153 and 154).

The very high English Canadian mean score obviously indicates

¹ The difference is statistically significant beyond the .03 level of confidence.

that in small business organizations, English Canadian managers, as an ethnic group, significantly value economic goals over social-humanitarian ones.¹ French Canadian managers do also, however, a finding which differs from that of French Canadian managers in large organizations (see page 152 and 153). Again, this is undoubtedly due to the fact that these managers are at middle and top echelons.

(B) Rankings of Organizational Goals

Turning to the analysis of the priorities assigned to each of the ten goals by English Canadian and French Canadian managers, Table 3 shows the rank orderings of mean choices for each of these two ethnic groups. First of all, it can be seen that there is a good deal of overall agreement between the sets of ranks. The tau correlation between the French Canadian and English Canadian ranks was found to be .81. A closer inspection of the ranks reveals that the two ethnic groups agree completely in their orderings of the goals ranked first, ninth and tenth. Thus, they agree on the priorities they assigned to the most important goal, Statement D, and on the two considered least important, Statements J and I.

In contrasting the ranks of French Canadian managers of small firms to those of large Non-Service organizations (obviously a more

¹ In this case a chi-square test was applied whereby the number of managers who obtained a score of 13 or more was compared to the theoretically expected number (50%) based on the null hypothesis. See Guilford (1956) page 237.

Table 9,3 - Priority Rankings of Ten Organizational Goals by French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers in Small Business Organizations.

Goals	(1) F.C. Managers Rank	(2) E.C. Managers Rank	(3) Difference
A	8	6	2 *
B	2	3	1
C	5	4.5	.5 *
D	1	1	0
E	4	2	2 *
F	3	4.5	1.5 **
G	6	7	1 **
H	7	8	1 **
I	10	10	0
J	9	9	0

* Indicates that the difference is in the direction of English Canadian managers assigning a higher priority rank to an economic goal. ** Indicates that the difference is in the direction of French Canadian managers assigning a higher priority rank to a social-humanitarian goal.

appropriate comparison than with Service organizations), it can be seen that the small firm managers agree much more with large firm second-level managers than they do with those of the first level. With the second-level managers, the tau correlation is .87 while it is only .73 with first-level managers. A similar pattern emerges with regard to English Canadian managers. The tau correlation with second-level managers is .87 and .69 with first-level managers. Thus, for both ethnic groups, managers of small business organizations agree much more with middle management than with lower management of large organizations on the relative priorities they feel should be assigned to the set of ten organizational goals. These results are consistent with our previous findings and indicate that small firm managers, being members of the middle or top echelons of their companies, clearly hold values that are very congruent with those of higher echelon management personnel in large business firms. For this reason, when contrasting the ranks of small company managers to those of large organizations, level 2 managers of large firms will be used as the standard of comparison.

The results of Table 3 reveal that the two largest discrepancies between the two ethnic groups regarding their priority rankings involve two economic goals: Statements A and E. Thus, English Canadian managers consider the acquisition of a greater share of the market and profit to be of greater importance than do French Canadian managers. There is also a slight tendency for English Canadian managers to value to a stronger degree a yearly increase in production (statement P). On the other hand,

French Canadian managers give a somewhat higher priority to service. On the whole though, it is clear that English Canadian managers value to a significantly greater extent the economic goals of business than do their French Canadian counterparts. In contrasting these results to those obtained in Table 4.4, the differences with respect to Statements B and E are in the same direction. In fact, profit (statement E) was ranked higher by English Canadian managers at all three levels of both the Service and Non-Service types of large corporations. Thus the present result confirms the existence of a strong cultural difference in terms of attitudes toward profit already established in the previous study of large firms. French Canadian managers also ranked service higher at middle and top levels of Non-Service large companies.

One difference which did not appear, however, in the study of large organizations relates to Statement A. This statement was given the same rank by each ethnic group at all levels of both Service and Non-Service organizations. In the present comparison, however, English Canadian managers rank it in sixth position while French Canadian managers rank it eighth. It is interesting to note in this regard that English Canadian managers of large organizations never gave it a rank lower than 7. A probable explanation for the present lower rank is that managers of small firms usually feel the need to expand and compete to a greater extent than do large, well-established ones. It would appear, however, that French Canadian managers do not. This also is not surprising since it has already been established that French Canadian managers are not intrinsically business-oriented beyond the point of providing a decent

income for the family.

The point here is that the reason why cultural differences did not appear among managers of large firms with respect to Statement A is most probably because this particular goal, in an economic-oriented society has, to a considerable extent, already been achieved in large businesses. It therefore becomes a relatively unimportant one in those settings.

Turning to the Social-Humanitarian goals, the results clearly revealed that French Canadian managers value these types of goals to a significantly greater extent than do English Canadian managers. Specifically, they give higher priority to Statements F, G and H. In large organizations at level 2 of the Non-Service type, no differences were found between the two groups (see table 4.4). It would appear then that in an industrial context in which French Canadian and English Canadian managers are not called upon to work together, cultural differences emerge which might not otherwise do so within a bicultural setting. The reader will recall that in analyzing the Strength of Feeling dimension of goals in Chapter IV, it was found that the French Canadian managers valued much more Goals F, G and H than did English Canadian managers (see table 4.24). It was brought out at that time that the Strength of Feeling analysis was a much more sensitive one than that of ranks. In other words, a real cultural difference would have to be larger to be detected by an analysis of ranks than it would have to be in order to be

detected by an analysis of Strength of Feelings. In this instance, even the rank analysis reveals a cultural difference, presumably due to the fact that in a non-bicultural setting, the differences are large enough to be detected by this less-sensitive analysis. Let us now turn to an investigation of these feelings for managers of small business.

(C) Strength of Feeling Associated with Goals

An examination of Table 4 clearly reveals that French Canadian managers value Social-Humanitarian goals much more than do English Canadian managers, while conversely, the latter group is definitely more economic-oriented. In contrasting these results to those of managers in large organizations (see table 4.24) it can be seen that in both studies, French Canadian managers express a significantly stronger intensity of feeling toward, that is a greater level of endorsement of, all five Social-Humanitarian goals. With regard to the attitudes toward economic goals, a few differences in the results of these two studies are worth noting. Although in both studies, English Canadian managers show significantly more intensity of feeling toward Goals B and E, in the study of large organizations, English Canadian managers also endorse to a significantly greater extent, Goal D. In the small business study, the difference is in the expected direction but is not significant.

On the other hand, in the latter study, English Canadian managers show a significantly greater acceptance of Goal A (which is not surprising in view of the analysis of ranks previously described), while in the former

Table 9.4- Mean (M) Number of Times English Canadian (EC) and French Canadian (FC) Managers Prefer Each of the Ten Organizational Goals, with their Corresponding Standard Deviations (S.D.).

Goals	F.C. Managers		E.C. Managers	
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.
A *	3.8	2.2	4.5	2.1
B *	6.5	1.6	6.7	1.1
C	5.0	1.9	5.0	1.7
D	7.5	1.5	7.6	1.2
E *	5.3	2.3	7.5	1.9
F *	5.4	1.8	5.0	1.7
G *	4.9	1.9	4.0	1.6
H *	4.1	2.0	3.0	1.3
I *	1.0	1.3	0.7	0.9
J *	1.6	2.1	0.8	1.2

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

study this difference, though in the expected direction, is not significant. We have already given an explanation regarding why this discrepancy in results occurs with regard to Goal A (see page 674).

To recapitulate, the present pattern of results for the Evaluation of Goals indicates that the disparity found to exist between the two ethnic groups in large industrial organizations with respect to their evaluation of the economic and humanitarian sets of goals, the relative priorities they assign to the ten objectives of business as well as to the feelings they attach to these objectives, hold true also for small business firms. It was also found that managers of both ethnic groups in small businesses value economic goals more than do their management counterparts in large organizations. In fact, the French Canadian management group in small organizations values Economic goals over Social-Humanitarian ones, a trend of findings which differs from that revealed in the large organization study, in which French Canadians did not value the one set over the other to a significant degree. As pointed out previously, this is undoubtedly due to the fact that managers in small businesses are closely equivalent in function to the economic-oriented middle and top management personnel in large organizations. Despite the differences in attitudes between the large organizations and the small companies however, there still exists a wide disparity between the two groups in the latter type of company with respect to their evaluation of the two sets of objectives, the importance they give to the ten objectives, and the strength of feeling they attach to them.

Thus, in essence, the results for small business firms confirm the strong cultural differences which were found between the two ethnic groups in the study of large organizations, with the typical English Canadian manager being intrinsically more economic-oriented than the French Canadian manager, and the French Canadian manager showing a much stronger inclination toward Social-Humanitarian objectives than does his English Canadian colleague. Whether or not large differences between them exist with respect to the compatibility they perceive between organizational goals and goals in other realms of life is the next matter for consideration.

Goal Conflict

The results shown in Table 5 reveal that the cultural differences found to exist in large organizations between the two ethnic groups in the direction of French Canadian managers manifesting more perceived conflict than English Canadian managers (with the exception of scale C where the trend is reversed) are also present among managers of these two ethnic groups within the context of small business firms. In terms of level of compatibility, some interesting differences exist between managers of large organizations and those of small business firms.¹ In addition, the cultural differences on certain scales are larger in the small business study than in the investigation of larger organizations. For these reasons, a brief contrast of the results of each scale in these

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The reader is referred to footnote 1 of page 252, Chapter IV.

Table 9.5 - Distribution of Means (M) and Standard Deviations (S.D.) of French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, with the Number (N) of Managers in Each Group, for Conflict Scales A, B, C, D, E, F and G.

SCALE		M	S.D.	N
A Family	FC	7.0 *	1.2	149
	EC	7.6	1.1	115
B Family	FC	7.6 *	2.4	151
	EC	8.2	2.0	120
C Family	FC	6.1 *	2.3	153
	EC	4.6	2.1	120
D Individual	FC	6.7 *	1.6	150
	EC	7.7	1.4	119
E Society	FC	6.7 *	1.7	151
	EC	8.1	1.3	120
F Society	FC	6.9 *	2.1	152
	EC	6.6	1.9	120
G Personal Gain	FC	6.4 *	1.3	150
	EC	7.8	1.2	119

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

two studies appears warranted.

Turning to Scale A, English Canadian managers perceive significantly less conflict between organizational goals and the general welfare and happiness of the family than do French Canadian managers, as was the case in large organizations.¹ A comparison between the English Canadian mean (7.6) and the means of English Canadian groups in large organizations (see table 4.25) shows that the former is larger than the latter ones in thirteen cases. Thus, English Canadian managers of small business firms perceive more compatibility than do those of large organizations. The former are at a satisfactory level of conflict (the standard being 7.5) while the latter are not (only four of fifteen groups reach the 7.5 level). The French Canadian mean (7.0), on the other hand, is greater than those of the fifteen French Canadian means in large organizations in only six cases, thereby indicating that they are at the same relatively high level of conflict as are their confrères in large organizations. Since English Canadian managers of small firms show less conflict than do English Canadian managers of large ones while French Canadian managers of both types of firms are at the same level, it is apparent that the cultural differences are larger within the context of small firms than within large organizations.

With regard to Scale B, English Canadian managers, as an ethnic

¹ The reader will remember that for all of these conflict scales, the higher the mean, the lower the degree of conflict (the higher the degree of compatibility), and conversely, the lower the mean, the greater the incompatibility (the greater the conflict).

group, perceive much more compatibility between family welfare and organizational practices concerning remuneration than do French Canadians as an ethnic group, a finding which was also true of large organizations. The small business English Canadian mean is larger than the English Canadian means in large organizations in only five cases (see table 4.26), while the French Canadian small business mean is larger than the French Canadian large organization means in nine cases. In both instances, the differences are not statistically significant, thereby indicating that in both types of organizations, the means of both ethnic groups are, for all practical purposes, the same. The cultural gap is therefore the same for both small and large firms.

The results of the third Family Conflict Scale, C, reveal that as in the case of large firms (see table 4.27), French Canadian managers are much more prone to organize family life around the manager's job than are English Canadian managers. It is interesting to note that for both ethnic groups, the small firm means are significantly higher than the corresponding ethnic means in large firms (in fourteen cases for the French Canadian means and in fifteen cases for the English Canadian means). Thus, managers of small firms are more willing to subjugate family life to business than are managers of large firms, but in both types of firms, French Canadian managers are much more in favour of doing so than are their English Canadian colleagues. Both groups in small firms however, remain far below the standard of 7.5.

It will be recalled that, in the study of large organizations, it was found for Scale D that industrial enterprises are perceived as much less compatible with the ideals and human aspirations of French Canadian managers than they are with those of English Canadian managers (see table 4.28). The same can be said for these two ethnic groups of managers in small business organizations, as seen in Table 5. In fact, the gap is somewhat larger in the latter instance. This is evidenced by the fact that the English Canadian mean of 7.7 is larger than the English Canadian means of large organizations in ten of fourteen cases (one is tied). This trend is statistically significant. The corresponding French Canadian trend however is not. It is interesting to note that, in contrast to French Canadian managers, English Canadian managers are at a satisfactorily low level of compatibility in this area.

The first scale of the Society dimension of conflict, Scale E, measures, it will be recalled, an over-all perception of incompatibility between the pursuit of material gain and the welfare of society. In the context of large organizations, it was found that French Canadian managers expressed much more role conflict in this dimension than did English Canadian managers (see table 4.29). They did also in the context of small business firms. For both ethnic groups, however, small company managers express less conflict than managers of large organizations. The English Canadians' small business mean surpasses the large company English Canadian means in twelve of thirteen cases (two ties). The equivalent French Canadian comparison reveals the French Canadian mean to be larger in ten

of fourteen comparisons (one tie). Both trends are statistically significant. Nevertheless it can be seen in Table 5 that, while the level of compatibility of English Canadian small business managers is very high, that of French Canadian managers in this context remains far below the accepted standard of 7.5.

The second scale of this dimension is Scale F, which measures an individual's perception of the extent to which the wealth and power of industrialists are used to the betterment of society. Here also the results of Table 5 confirm those of the large organizations study (see table 4.30). English Canadian managers perceive much more compatibility between the welfare of society and the personal influence of wealthy and powerful industrialists than do French Canadian managers. As was the case for Scale E, both ethnic groups of small firms express less conflict than do those of large organizations. The English Canadian small business mean is larger than those of big firms in nine of thirteen comparisons (two ties) while the corresponding analysis for French Canadians indicates that the French Canadian mean is larger in eleven of fifteen comparisons. Both trends are statistically significant. Both groups however, remain far below the established standard in terms of conflict level.

The final scale in Table 5 is Scale G, which measures attitudes toward those who are motivated by, or pursue, monetary gain. The results in Table 5 confirm the existence of a cultural difference established in the large organizations study. The attitudes of English Canadian

managers toward people who pursue monetary gain are much more favorable than those of French Canadian managers. Actually, the gap widens between the two ethnic groups in small business firms. The English Canadian mean (7.8) is larger than twelve of the fifteen English Canadian means in large organizations. While this trend is a highly significant one, the corresponding French Canadian one is not at all significant.

Thus, English Canadian managers are much more positively inclined toward people who are motivated by money than are French Canadian managers, and even more so in the context of small business firms. It is interesting to note that, while the English Canadian managers of large firms do not quite reach the desirable level of compatibility (a mean of 7.5), those of small firms do. On the other hand, the French Canadian means remain at a very low level, thereby indicating the extent to which the French Canadian culture inculcates in its members a deep feeling of guilt associated with money matters.

In summary, the analysis of Goal Conflict among managers in small organizations dramatically substantiates the wide cultural differences which were found to exist between the two ethnic groups in large industrial organizations. In fact, the disparities in the former types of business institutions are as large or even larger than those revealed in the latter. The gap between the two groups is actually wider in small companies than in large companies with respect to the attitudes measured by Scales A, D, and G, and is substantially the same on Scales

B, C, E and F.

An interesting relationship can be found between the economic orientation of small business managers and their relatively high degree of conflict on Scale G. As previously reported, the typical French Canadian manager in a small business shows a stronger economic orientation than does his ethnic counterpart in a large organization. He also, however, expresses more conflict than his large organization counterpart with respect to the pursuit of financial gain. It would seem that the relatively greater importance French Canadian small business managers attach to the economic goals of business (in contrast to French Canadian managers in large organizations) generates in them even more pervasive feelings of guilt and conflict than is apparent among their ethnic counterparts in large corporations. In short, because of the strong competitive climate of small business organizations, French Canadian managers must, of necessity, value relatively strongly economic objectives. This results in a sharpening of the conflict they feel with respect to money, a conflict between their own deeply-rooted aversion to materialism, and the necessity to adhere closely to the economic objectives of the small company in which they work. This relationship, then, illustrates rather clearly the profound effects culture has on the mentality of the French Canadian with regard to business matters.

The implications of all of these research findings with respect to Goal Conflict in small business organizations are, of course, essentially the same as those already described in Chapter IV for large industrial

organizations. For a review of these implications, the reader is referred to pages 274 to 281, 307 to 308, 317 to 319 and 330 to 344 of that chapter. In conclusion, it is certainly safe to assert that the climate of small French Canadian business concerns is markedly different from those of English Canadians. It is inevitable that this disparity will have a strong differential effect on the course of development of these two types of economic institutions within the Province of Quebec.

The Management of People

The results of the leadership scales will be discussed in terms of the first leadership model described in Chapter V.¹ The reader will recall that the model consists of three basic components: (1) Component I, which incorporates Scales H, H1 and I, (2) Component II, which comprises Scales J, K, L and M, and (3) Component III, which includes the remaining Scales N and O.

With regard to the scales of Component I, the results presented in Table 6 clearly indicate that French Canadian managers of small business firms are much more Theory X-oriented and have much stronger Status Needs than do English Canadian managers. In all three comparisons, the differences between means of these two ethnic groups are highly significant. Thus, in terms of their respective personal philosophies of management the differences found to exist between these two ethnic groups in large organizations are also in evidence when comparing the same two ethnic groups of managers in small business firms.

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The reader is referred to Figure 1 of Chapter V, page 362.

Table 9.6 - Distribution of Means (M) and Standard Deviations (S.D.) of French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers, with the Number (N) of Managers in Each Group, for Leadership Scales H, H1, I, J, K, L, M, N, O.

SCALE		M	S.D.	N
H	FC	4.8 *	1.3	153
	EC	3.4	1.3	116
H1	FC	6.8 *	1.8	153
	EC	6.3	1.7	118
I	FC	5.1 *	1.5	150
	EC	4.3	1.4	117
J	FC	6.6	1.8	153
	EC	6.6	1.8	120
K	FC	8.6 *	1.0	152
	EC	8.9	0.8	121
L	FC	6.5 *	1.4	151
	EC	7.1	1.3	115
M	FC	8.8	1.1	153
	EC	8.7	1.1	120
N	FC	6.1 *	1.9	153
	EC	7.1	1.6	116
O	FC	5.0 *	1.6	136
	EC	5.6	1.5	102

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two means at the .03 level of confidence.

One interesting finding is the fact that, for both groups on these three scales, the means of small firm managers are significantly higher than those of the groups of managers studied in large organizations¹. In other words, small business managers are more Theory X-oriented and have stronger Status Needs than do managers of large firms. This finding is not surprising when one contrasts the socio-economic climates of large and small business organizations. In the latter type of institution, financial, material and manpower resources are much more strictly limited than in the former, and thus, the competition among smaller companies tends to be much keener. This has several consequences on the leadership mentality of managers in these two different types of settings. First, the much stronger pressure to compete, and the accompanying state of urgency and vigilance which exist in small business firms deter the manager from adopting an essentially positive, trusting attitude toward subordinates in the workplace, and giving them the "benefit of the doubt" when they slacken their efforts. Thus, these managers are likely to rely strongly on their status to see that people in the work setting continually sustain their efforts. In large organizations, where this competitive atmosphere is less keen, the manager can "afford" to adopt a more tolerant and positive attitude toward subordinates, and to use his status less directly and emphatically.

¹ For all the six comparisons (two ethnic groups per scale), the number of times the small company mean is larger than the means of groups belonging to large organizations varies from twelve to fifteen out of a total possible fifteen comparisons (see tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3). The reader is also reminded that the higher the score, the more an individual is Theory X-oriented or the stronger his need for Status.

Secondly, their "tight" budget and lack of financial reserves precludes the possibility that the small business organization can develop adequate training facilities, or can employ the services of outside experts who could keep their management staff abreast of current knowledge and skill in the management of people. Thus, small business managers are not given the opportunity to examine their own attitudes toward others, to develop more confidence in their skills, and to rectify distortions in their thinking about the motivation and behaviour of people in the workplace. In contrast, large organizations are able to, and do, allot substantial funds for the training and development of their management staffs. Their managers are therefore afforded the opportunity to sensitize themselves to the possible abuses of authority relative to the needs of others in the work setting.

Thirdly, again because of the competitive climate among small businesses, as well as the closer control and review of the results of their efforts by their superiors which is made feasible by their limited size and simpler organizational structure, the small firm manager must certainly feel that he cannot make mistakes, because if he does, they will, in addition to being in all probability exposed, likely be of greater consequence. This, in itself, engenders a strong sense of fear and insecurity in him and encourages him to emphasize his status and mistrust the interest and motivation of others. On the other hand, the manager in a large corporation, having at his disposal many more resources, both human and financial, can afford to be somewhat more "generous", so to speak, with

regard to his own mistakes and misjudgment as well as those of his subordinates, and he therefore can adopt more relaxed, less urgent concern for all but major errors and misjudgments than can his small business counterpart.

In short, the major objective of large organizations tends to be centered around planning for long-term growth and expansion, so that their managers, being less "under fire" (than their small business counterparts), can function in their managerial roles with a greater sense of security and comfort. The major concern of small firms, on the other hand, is the fight for economic survival, which fosters in them relatively speaking, a greater sense of uneasiness and insecurity. Viewed in this comparative context then, one would expect the small firm manager to rely more strongly on his management prerogatives, to mistrust rather than to trust the intentions of others in the day-to-day work situation, and to fail to understand the impact of his own attitudes and actions on others.

Turning to the scales of Component II, let us first consider the two scales that measure the Task Orientation dimension of this component, Scales J and K. The results of Table 6 show that, in terms of being preoccupied with the immediate demands for gross work output, Scale J, English Canadian managers of small business firms are just as task-oriented as are French Canadian managers. This finding differs from the results within large organizations, where it was found that French Canadian

managers were significantly more inclined to exert this type of work pressure on subordinates than were English Canadian managers.

In comparing the small business English Canadian mean to those of English Canadian groups within large organizations (see table 5.4), it can be seen that, in fourteen of the fifteen comparisons, the small business mean is larger.¹ On the other hand, the corresponding French Canadian comparison of means reveals that among French Canadians also the small business mean is significantly larger than those of their large firm counterparts (it is larger in eight of ten comparisons, five being equal). This finding served to confirm the notion that small business firms are actually under more pressure to produce than are large business firms as described on page 686 . It is apparent that in the context of small business firms this competitive, tough-minded atmosphere, and the sense of insecurity it engenders, prevails and as a result cultural differences disappear because it affects both groups rather profoundly.

In terms of the "target-setting" aspect of Task Orientation, however, the cultural differences found in large organizations still prevail when contrasting English Canadian and French Canadian managers of small businesses on Scale K. That is, as seen in Table 6, English Canadian managers are significantly more task-oriented than French Canadian managers in the sense that they are more concerned about

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The reader is reminded that for the Task Orientation scales, the higher the score, the more task-oriented the individual is.

fostering a climate where high standards of excellence are valued and within which individuals can continually give the best of themselves. In the light of our previous discussion of the mentality of both groups with regard to Task Orientation (see pages 440 to 442 of chapter V), this finding was to be expected. Since this aspect of Task Orientation reflects the basic value system one has toward the economic function of business, it should be relatively unaffected by the size of the organization one is associated with, and be impervious to the pressure demands of small business.

In contrasting the small business means to those of large organizational groups (see table 5.5) it can be seen that, in fact, for both cultural groups, the small business means are not significantly different from those of large companies. The English Canadian small business mean on Scale K is larger than the corresponding English Canadian organization means in five comparisons, smaller in seven and equal in three. The French Canadian small business mean is larger in eight comparisons smaller in six and equal in one. These results then, are highly consistent with the findings of Chapter IV as well as those of this chapter on Organizational Goals, both of which revealed that the French Canadian manager's value system is significantly less compatible with the activities and aims of business organizations be they large or small than is the value system of the English Canadian manager.

With regard to the Consideration of Others dimension of

Component II, the results presented in Table 6 indicate that while English Canadian managers definitely show more consideration of others than do French Canadian managers in the sense of being more sensitive and sympathetic to the needs of subordinates in face-to-face relationships with them on the job (scale L), both ethnic groups equally endorse very highly the notion of having good human relations principles (scale M).¹ The significant difference between the means of each of the two ethnic groups on Scale L confirms the existence of a truly cultural difference already established in the study of large firms. In fact, the difference is more clear-cut in small firms, since the French Canadian small firm mean is significantly smaller than those of French Canadian groups in large organizations (smaller in twelve cases, larger in two, and equal in one, see table 5.7), while the corresponding English Canadian mean is not significantly different from those of English Canadian groups in large firms (ten smaller and five larger). Thus the gap between the two ethnic groups is wider within the context of small business organizations than within that of large industrial corporations.

Regarding Scale M, it was found in the study of large firms that French Canadian managers value slightly more than English Canadian managers the broad human relations principles related to the Consideration

¹ The reader is reminded that the higher the score, the greater the degree of Consideration of Others for both of these scales.

of Others in the workplace. The difference was a statistically significant one, though obviously not an important one from a practical standpoint, being of such a small magnitude. In this study of small business firms, this difference disappears due to the fact that the small firm French Canadian mean is significantly smaller than those of French Canadian groups in large firms (eleven are smaller, three larger and one equal, see table 5.6), while the corresponding English Canadian mean is not significantly different from those of large firms (eight are smaller, four larger and three equal).

In this regard, it is interesting to review for this second component how the small business setting affects these cultural patterns in contrast to the environment of large organizations. We have seen that the small business milieu serves to render English Canadian managers more aggressive than their large firm counterparts in terms of putting more emphasis on the immediate achievement of tasks, an effect which occurs also in the case of French Canadian managers who remain at the same high level of aggressiveness in both environments. In terms of the Consideration of Others dimension, however, it is the French Canadian managers who are affected by these two different firm sizes. For both Scales L and M, the small business milieu renders French Canadian managers less considerate of others and less concerned about the human relations aspect of work than their large firm counterparts. The corresponding attitudes of English Canadian managers are, on the other hand, unaffected by these two types of environments. Finally we have

seen that the attitudes of both ethnic groups in terms of the target-setting dimension of Task Orientation are not influenced by this factor.

In the opinion of the researchers, these differential effects served to corroborate what we know about the mentality of these two ethnic groups based on the ensemble of research data previously accumulated and discussed in this report. In short, we are in the presence here of interaction effects between two degrees of stress (the stress of large firms being relatively less intense than that of small firms, as described in detail on pages 686 to 687), and two different cultures, the English Canadian one being essentially industrialized and egalitarian, the French Canadian one being, in essence, non-industrialized and authoritarian.

In a relatively less stressful economic setting (that of a large firm), one would expect the members of the former culture, being prepared for or adapted to, and therefore feeling relatively secure in, such an industrial environment, to have lower scores than members of the French Canadian culture on Scale J, since members of the latter culture are obviously much less adapted to and therefore feel much more insecure in this situation. In other words, the large industrial setting, being in itself very stressful for French Canadian managers, while not very stressful for English Canadian managers, should result in the latter being much more aggressive than the former in terms of applying this felt work pressure on others. On the other hand, one would expect that

English Canadian managers would have higher scores on Scale K than French Canadian managers, not because this setting is less stressful to them, but simply because they are more identified with the goals of business. Indeed, stress and its accompanying tension are much less likely to have an effect on one's implicit ideal with respect to continued excellence of performance in the work setting, than on one's specific behaviour toward others in the rush to get the work out. It is well known in the social sciences that stress has a much less immediate effect on one's values and ideals than on one's relations with others in concrete situations.

In terms of the Consideration of Others dimension, one would obviously expect that, in work-related interpersonal relationships, English Canadian managers would have higher scores on Scale L than French Canadian managers. Being much more secure than the latter, as we have discussed at length in Chapter V, as well as being essentially egalitarian in mentality, it is feasible to expect that they would be more understanding of the needs of subordinates, more "other-directed", though again, as discussed in detail in Chapter V, there is no reason to believe that both groups would differ greatly in terms of accepting in theory the practice of good human relations principles.¹ Stress, and its accompanying insecurity, in other words, has a much stronger effect

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Though the French Canadian mean score was higher by a statistically significant amount on Scale M, the difference remains a very small one for all practical purposes, the median difference of the magnitude of .20.

on interpersonal relationships than, once again, on one's ideals. As we have seen, all of these projected patterns of differences and similarities in this second component did in fact occur in the study of large organizations.

Given these elements, let us now consider the same two ethnic groups in an objectively much more stressful, competitive environment, that of small business firms. First of all, as previously suggested, we would not expect this added stress to have a marked effect on the two scales which directly reflect an individual's personal ideology about tasks and people, Scales K and M. We have seen that it does not, in fact, noticeably affect the average scores of either of these two groups on these two scales.¹

Stress should, however, have an impact on one's relationship with others at work. The kind of impact it has should be a function of the inherent cultural characteristics of the group members. Since English Canadian managers are members of a culture which is highly economic-oriented and egalitarian, the repercussions of stress on this group should be to reinforce the Task Orientation dimension rather than to affect the Consideration of Others dimension. Indeed it would be more acceptable in terms of the protestant ethic mentality to emphasize more strongly the achievement of tasks than to de-emphasize the democratic

¹ On Scale M the small business French Canadian manager's mean score is statistically lower than those of large firms but the difference is negligible for all practical purposes, the median difference being of the magnitude of .20.

approach to people. We have seen, in comparing the results of Table 6 to those of Tables 5.4 and 5.7 that this actually does occur. In Scale L, the English Canadian small firm mean is not significantly different from those of large firm English Canadian managers. On Scale J, however, it is, and the median difference is .60, a fairly large one. It should be pointed out that the French Canadian small firm mean is also significantly larger than that of the corresponding French Canadian large organization means. However, the median difference in this case is only .10, a most negligible difference from a practical standpoint. The corresponding English Canadian difference is thus six times as large.

On the other hand, since French Canadian managers are members of a culture which is essentially non-economic-oriented, yet highly authoritarian, the repercussions of this added stress on them should be to negatively reinforce the Consideration of Others dimension rather than to further intensify the Task Orientation dimension (especially in view of the fact that they are already high on this aspect of the Task Orientation dimension due to basic feelings of insecurity on their part within the context of industry, be it large or small, as previously discussed in chapters IV and V). In short, to further intensify the present high level of work pressure would be unacceptable in the eyes of French Canadian managers, since according to the French Canadian mentality, production per se, is inhuman (see scale D, page 283 of chapter IV) and subordinates are not encouraged to go beyond a minimum

level of production (see page 440 of chapter V). It will also be futile since, again according to this mentality, people having an inherent dislike for work can only be "pushed so far". Since further "applying the whip" is not an acceptable solution, there remains the possibility of further "tightening the reins". This tougher, disciplinary approach to the problem is, of course, most acceptable within the context of a highly authoritarian culture. In fact, we have seen for Scale L that the French Canadian small firm mean is significantly smaller than those of their large firm counterparts, while on Scale J, the small firm mean is significantly larger than that of their kind in big corporations. However, while the latter median difference is only .10, a negligible one, the former median difference is .70, an obviously much larger and important one. Viewed in this manner then, these differential patterns of differences and similarities are meaningful, and provide further proof of the existence of strong, deeply-rooted cultural differences in management thinking between these two ethnic groups, thereby creating profound problems of communication which obviously cannot be solved by simply breaking the language barrier which exists between them.

The results presented in Table 6 clearly indicate that French Canadian managers of small business firms are much less inclined to involve subordinates in the decision-making process of industry (scale N)¹ and exercise much stronger control over the work of others

¹ The reader is reminded that the higher the mean score for Scale N, the greater the degree to which an individual favours Participation in Decision-Making by subordinates.

(scale 0)¹ than do English Canadian managers. In both comparisons, the differences between the means of these two ethnic groups are highly significant. This finding is similar to the results obtained in the study of large organizations. It is interesting to note that, for both ethnic groups, the small firm means of Scale 0 do not differ significantly from those of large firm managers (for both groups, the small firm mean is larger in six comparisons and smaller in the nine others, see tables 5.8 and 5.9).

Regarding Scale N, the French Canadian small firm mean does not differ significantly from the French Canadian means of large organizations (it is larger in seven cases, and smaller in the remaining eight). In the corresponding comparison for English Canadian managers, however, the English Canadian small firm mean does, in the direction of being smaller than those of their large company English Canadian counterparts (smaller in eleven cases and larger in three, one being equal). Thus, the gap found to exist between the two groups in large firms is narrowed somewhat within the context of small business. The difference remains nevertheless, a large one, and it is clear from these results that, in both small and large industrial organizations, French Canadian and English Canadian managers adopt very different managerial styles of leadership in dealing with subordinates at work.

¹ For Scale 0, the higher the score the less the degree to which close supervision of subordinates' efforts are favoured.

In summary, the research findings for the Management of People in small business enterprises definitely verify (as they did for Organizational Goals) the marked cultural differences found to exist between the two groups in large corporations. This wide disparity was found to be consistent across all three components of the leadership process in small business organizations, and corroborates the dynamic interrelationships between these components which account for the divergent views of the two groups, as described in Chapter V.

For Component I, both ethnic groups in small enterprises express higher Status Needs and both show a stronger Theory X orientation toward others in the workplace than is the case in large corporations, but the disparity between them on these attitude dimensions of the first component, which was so wide in large companies, also exists in the small ones. With respect to Component II, the marked cultural differences found in large organizations generally held up again in small business enterprises. In contrast to their counterparts in large organizations, both English Canadian and French Canadian small company managers are more "pressure-oriented" with respect to task accomplishment, but the much greater difference between English Canadian managers in contrasting large with small organizations than was evident between French Canadian managers (in the two types of organizations) reduced the disparity between these two ethnic groups in small companies to a magnitude which was not significant. However, in the standard-setting aspect of Task Orientation, the two groups remained far apart in their views. French Canadians show

less inclination to be considerate of others in their day-to-day interaction with subordinates than do their counterparts in large companies and the disparity between the two ethnic groups in small companies is even wider than that found in large organizations. With respect to the broad principles of good human relations, the two groups in large organizations differ to a significant degree, though from a practical standpoint, the gap between them is not large. In small companies, no difference is found between them on this dimension of Consideration of Others. It was suggested that the pattern of differences between the large and small companies for both groups in the attitude dimensions of Component II was due to the greater stress and its accompanying tensions and insecurity on the part of small company managers relative to those in big corporations, who work in a relatively less threatening atmosphere.

The same strong cultural difference shows through again when comparing large to small company managers on the attitude dimension embodied in Component III. As are their large company counterparts, French Canadians, relative to their English Canadian colleagues, are strongly inclined toward the restriction of employee participation in decisions, and favour close surveillance of subordinates' work. English Canadians favour much more than French Canadians the involvement of subordinates in work decisions, and lean much more toward a freer, more general form of control. Thus, French Canadians and English Canadians differ widely in small business enterprises in their personal philosophy of management,

in their views of tasks and people involved in these tasks, and in their style of supervising subordinates. In order to complete the study of management attitudes in small business concerns, there remains an investigation of the work motivation of the two ethnic groups, a matter to which we will now turn our attention.

Work Motivation

The presentation and interpretation of the research findings for this section will be conducted in three phases. First, an analysis will be made of the rank order differences between the two ethnic groups on the twenty motives. As in the large organizations study, relatively large differences between the two groups (rank order differences of two or more) will be the major focus of interest. Secondly, these differences will be compared to those identified in the large corporations study as cultural differences, in order to determine the extent to which the latter differences apply to small organizations as well. Obviously, if they are truly important cultural differences, they should apply. Thus, this analysis serves as a form of verification of the large firm findings. Finally, the small firm results will be contrasted to those of second level Non-Service organizations in order to obtain some insight into the manner in which these two distinct milieus differentially affect the motivational patterns of French Canadian and English Canadian managers in industry.

Turning first to the analysis of ranks for each of the two ethnic groups in small business firms, the results presented in Table 7, clearly indicate that there is a fair amount of disagreement on the relative

Table 9.7 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations by French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers in Small Business Organizations.

Motivations	F.C. Managers	E.C. Managers	Difference
	Rank	Rank	
A	7	4	3
B	20	19	1
C	8	5	3
D	11	16	5
E	19	20	1
F	6	6.5	.5
G	9	10	1
H	12	13	1
I	3	2	1
J	4	8	4
K	16.5	17	.5
L	14	12	2
M	16.5	15	1.5
N	5	6.5	1.5
O	18	18	0
P	10	3	7
Q	15	11	4
R	13	14	1
S	2	1	1
T	1	9	8

importance be attached to many of these work motives. While the rank differences are negligible for eleven statements (in only one statement are the ranks the same), the differences found on the remaining eight motives are for the most part quite substantial, five of these being of four or more ranks. This rather low level of agreement (the tau correlation is only .65) is further substantiated by the fact that the largest rank discrepancies involve motives that one or the other of the two ethnic groups considers to be of primary importance to them (rank among the top five motives). Thus the motive given top priority by French Canadian managers, Statement T¹ (job specialization), is ranked in ninth position by English Canadian managers. Conversely, the motive ranked third most important by English Canadian managers, Statement P (efficient work equipment), is ranked tenth by French Canadian managers. Similarly, whereas motive J (power and authority), is ranked in fourth position by French Canadian managers, it is given a rank of eight by English Canadian managers. The motive this latter group considers to be fourth in priority, Statement A (salary), is ranked in seventh place by French Canadian managers. Finally, the motive ranked fifth by English Canadian managers, Statement C (promotions), is given a rank of eight by French Canadian managers. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that both groups consider the training and development of subordinates for responsible positions (statement S) and the acquisition of greater responsibilities (statement I)

¹ The reader is referred to page 534 where the statements are reproduced with the letters used to identify each of them.

to be among the incentives of primary importance to them. The two groups, moreover, substantially agree on the incentives they consider to be of relatively minor importance to them (those ranked among the bottom five) namely: Statements B (shorter hours), E (definite and regular hours), K (being exposed to criticism) and O (friendships at work).

As mentioned above, the two largest discrepancies occur with regard to Statements T (a rank difference of eight) and P (a rank difference of seven). The importance of these differences is attested by the fact that in none of the large company ethnic comparisons does one find a difference of such a large magnitude on any given statement (a difference of six ranks was found on one occasion only). Thus, French Canadian managers, to a considerably greater extent than their English Canadian counterparts, wish to specialize in the job area they are most interested in (statement T). Conversely, the latter have a much stronger desire than the former to acquire more functional work facilities (statement P). The significance of these and other discrepancies between the two ethnic groups will be discussed in phases two and three of our analysis.

Examining further the data in Table 7, it can be seen that the third most important difference between the two ethnic groups lies in their consideration of the importance of job security (statement D). While English Canadian managers consider job tenure to be of relatively minor importance to them (they rank this motive in sixteenth position), French Canadian managers definitely do not feel this way. Although the

latter do not consider it to be of primary importance to them either (they rank this motive in eleventh place), they nevertheless express a much stronger need than do English Canadian managers to be reassured that the job they presently hold is theirs for as long as they wish to have it.

The differences of the next highest magnitude, discrepancies of four ranks, occur with respect to motives J and Q. French Canadian managers consider power and authority (statement J) to be a motive of primary importance to them, while English Canadian managers definitely consider this motive to be of lesser priority, though obviously not of minor importance. On the other hand, English Canadian managers are much more inclined to want to work with fewer people, a consideration that French Canadian managers almost classify as being of minor importance (statement Q).

Differences between the two ethnic groups of three rank orders occur with respect to incentives A (salary) and C (promotions) both in the direction of English Canadian managers striving to better themselves financially and in terms of advancement to a significantly greater extent than do French Canadian managers. In fact, though both groups attach a relatively high priority level to these two incentives, English Canadian managers classify them as top priority ones (among the top five) while French Canadian managers do not feel that they are of major importance. Finally, one incentive, Statement K, reveals a difference of two ranks,

with English Canadian managers desiring less tension and trouble at work to a somewhat greater degree than do French Canadian managers.

To summarize the major findings in terms of the need systems outlined in Chapter VI, the most salient of these differences occurs in the Self-Actualization Needs. On the whole, English Canadian managers have stronger Self-Actualization Needs than do French Canadian managers by striving much more intensely to acquire better equipment, facilities and further promotions (a combined rank difference of twelve units). Conversely, it is also true that French Canadian managers much more strongly desire to become job specialists or experts than do English Canadian managers. It is evident that these two groups seek to self-actualize in work in very different ways.

French Canadian managers express stronger over-all Security Needs than do English Canadian managers by striving to obtain, to a much greater extent, reassurance with regard to job tenure, although English Canadian managers, to a somewhat greater degree than French Canadians, wish to be relieved of worries and tensions on the job. While the Esteem Needs of French Canadian managers are greater in that power and authority are much more important to them than they are to English Canadian managers, the latter have stronger Economic Needs in that they are more motivated by financial remuneration than are French Canadian managers. Finally, in terms of Social Needs, English Canadian managers, much more than French Canadian managers, wish to deal with

fewer people in the accomplishment of their tasks.

Having described the major differences in the motivational pattern of each of these two ethnic groups, let us now examine to what extent these differences correspond to those found to exist consistently between the two groups in the five ethnic comparisons outlined in Table 6.7. In comparing the data presented in Table 6.7 to those of Table 7, it can be seen that most of the differences in motivation identified as cultural ones in the study of large organizations are also prevalent when comparing English Canadian managers to French Canadian managers of small firms, namely (in the order presented in table 6.7): Statements J, D, Q, T and A. Thus for these statements, the same interpretations as those made in the analysis of motivation in large organizations are appropriate to the study of small companies, hence no further comments are warranted here, except to point out that these differences are particularly profound cultural ones, since they not only exist at different levels of large Non-Service and Service organizations, but among managers of small business enterprises as well. Work motive Statements S and F, ranked differentially in a sufficiently consistent manner to be interpreted as cultural differences in the study of large organizations, did not turn out to be particularly significant when comparing the motives of English Canadian managers to those of French Canadian managers within the context of small business. Regarding Statement S, the small rank difference of one is nevertheless in the same direction, English Canadian managers valuing a little more the development of subordinates than French Canadian managers. Hence, in this regard,

the trend of differences is not broken and the cultural difference remains a deep-seated one. The trend of differences, however, is broken for Statement F (treating people as human beings). In the study of large organizations, it was suggested that French Canadian managers did not feel the need to treat people as human beings to the same degree as English Canadian managers, because in their minds it is not possible to do so in big business (see pages 567 and 568 of chapter VI). It is quite possible that small firm French Canadian managers feel, however, that it is feasible to do so in small business, especially in view of the fact that these managers are members of French Canadian-owned firms, and not English Canadian-owned firms as is the case in the study of large corporations. Though this interpretation is, in the opinion of the researchers, sound and reasonable, it is not to be interpreted as definitely a proven point. It is an attempt, rather, to lend meaning to this particular research finding, and to highlight an area in which research is needed. This and other contentious issues uncovered in this study of industrial leadership should be viewed in this light.

French Canadian and English Canadian managers of small firms give different ranks (ranks of two or more) to three statements which did not give rise to a significant trend of differences in the study of large organizations. The most important of these, obviously, is Statement T (job specialization), ranked in first place by French Canadian managers and in a much lower rank position by English Canadian managers. Table 6.7

reveals that, in four of the five large firm comparisons, French Canadian managers also rank this statement higher than do English Canadian managers. In one comparison however, the trend is reversed. Because of this reversal, it was not possible to interpret this trend as a significant cultural one. (The sign test requires no reversals in a minimum of four comparisons for a trend to be statistically significant beyond the .13 level of confidence). The added information of small firms, however, especially in view of the fact that the difference is such a large one in this latter comparison, clearly indicates that the difference is a cultural one¹. French Canadian managers of both small and large business firms have a greater need to specialize in the job area they like best. It is evident however, that the gap is a much more salient one in small business firms, a consideration which will be dealt with shortly.

With regard to Statements C and L, no significant pattern of differences between the two ethnic groups emerges on the basis of these additional data. It is interesting to note however that for both groups, small business managers are less motivated for promotions than are managers of large corporations, presumably because there is more opportunity for advancement in the latter institutions.

In the study of large organizations, the correlations between the French Canadian and English Canadian rank orders over the twenty

¹ The trend of differences is significant beyond the .13 level of confidence.

motives vary from a low of .76 to a high of .86 across the five management level-by-organization type comparisons made. Specifically, in Service organizations, the correlations are .76 and .77 respectively at levels 1 and 2 of management. In Non-Service organizations, the corresponding correlations are .80 and .86. Finally, at level 3 of management for the combined Service and Non-Service groups, the correlation was .80. In the case of small business firms, the tau correlation between the two ethnic groups is .64, thereby indicating that the rankings of motives of small firm English Canadian and French Canadian managers are much more dissimilar than those of corresponding large firm managers, be they members of lower, middle or top management of either Service or Non-Service organizations.

In order to briefly explore the nature of this large discrepancy, it was decided to contrast the motive rankings of small business managers to those of large company managers at level 2 of Non-Service organizations. As previously mentioned in this chapter, it is to this group of large firm managers that small firm managers are most comparable (see page 673). As a further check, tau correlation co-efficients were computed between the rank orderings of motives of small firm French Canadian managers and each of the five French Canadian large firm groups. The correlation between small firm managers and second level managers is .75. No correlation was found to be higher, although two others were of the same magnitude. Similar correlations were made for English Canadian managers and the highest correlation found was the one between

small firm managers and second level managers of large Non-Service organizations (.81). Thus, it can be seen that there is some justification for using this second level large firm group as a basis for comparison since small firm managers of both culture tend to resemble most in mentality this particular group.

Another reason why this group of second level managers is of interest is the fact that it is precisely at this level within large organizations that the two ethnic groups' rankings of motives were most similar (.86). Since this comparison offered the sharpest contrast between the two sets of cultural differences (the difference of .86 and .64 being the largest correlation disparity), it was felt that it would provide a clearer picture of which motives were most salient in accounting for this differential level of agreement between the two groups. In other words, having established that French Canadian and English Canadian managers' rankings of the twenty motives were more dissimilar in the context of small business than in any of the large firm similar comparisons between the two ethnic groups, the comparison whereby French Canadian and English Canadian large firm managers have the most similar rankings was chosen as an extreme contrast to highlight those motives which best explained this differential level of congruence between the pattern of motives of each of the two ethnic groups found to exist in small and in large organizations.

This contrast of cultural differences is presented in Table 8. It can be seen from these results that two statements, motives T (job specialization) and P (efficient work equipment), account for the greater part of the discrepancy between the degree of similarity (tau correlation of .64) in the rankings of the twenty motives by French Canadian and English Canadian managers of small firms as against the degree of similarity (tau correlation of .86) in the rankings of these same motives by English Canadian and French Canadian managers at level 2 of Non-Service organizations. While the rank difference between English Canadian and French Canadian managers is of one rank only for Statement T in large organizations, it is one of eight ranks in small business firms.

The discrepancy is therefore one of seven ranks between the ethnic rank difference of small firms and the ethnic disparity of rankings in large firms. It is interesting to note in this regard the reversal in ranks between these two groups in comparing one milieu to the other. That is, while job specialization is much more important for French Canadian small firm managers than for French Canadian large organization managers, the opposite is true of English Canadian managers.

In terms of Statement P, however, it is the English Canadian managers of small firms who consider efficient work equipment to be of much greater importance to them than English Canadian managers of large firms, while French Canadian managers of both types of institutions feel about the same concerning the utilization of better equipment. For this statement, in large firms, the rank difference between the two ethnic groups is

Table 9.8 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivation by French Canadian (FC) and English Canadian (EC) Managers in Small Business Organizations and at Level Two of Management in Large Non-Service Organizations.

Motivations	<u>Small Organizations</u>			<u>Large Organizations</u>		
	F.C. Rank	E.C. Rank	Difference	F.C. Rank	E.C. Rank	Difference
A	7	4	3	5	4	1
B	20	19	1	19	19	0
C	8	5	3	2	2	0
D	11	16	5	12	16	4
E	19	20	1	20	20	0
F	6	6.5	.5	6	5	1
G	9	10	1	9	9	0
H	12	13	1	10	11	1
I	3	2	1	1	1	0
J	4	8	4	4	7	3
K	16.5	17	.5	17	18	1
L	14	12	2	14	14	0
M	16.5	15	1.5	16	15	1
N	5	6.5	1.5	8	8	0
O	18	18	0	15	17	2
P	10	3	7	11	10	1
Q	15	11	4	18	13	6
R	13	14	1	13	12	1
S	2	1	1	3	3	0
T	1	9	8	7	6	1

very small (one rank) while the corresponding difference in large firms is a very large one (seven ranks). Here, the discrepancy between the ethnic rank difference of small firms and that of large corporations is one out of six ranks. Thus the much greater lack of similarity in the rankings of motives by French Canadian and English Canadian managers of small firms, when compared to the difference in rankings of large firm English Canadian and French Canadian managers, is for the most part attributable to the fact that, although both ethnic groups in large organizations have a fairly strong need for specializing in a job area of their liking, and a moderate need for acquiring more functional work equipment and installations, within the context of small business, the relative importance of these two needs or incentives is very different indeed for French and English Canadian managers. In the opinion of the researchers, this can best be understood in the light of all previous discussion on the different level of stress engendered by these two distinct organizational environments (see page 686). Under greater stress, the more cogent needs tend to be those related to Self-Actualization (unless the stress is so severe that the individual cannot possibly feel that he can cope, in which case Security Needs come to the forefront). Both Statements (T and P) are part of the Self-Actualization need systems.

It is evident, however, that the two groups react to stress in a manner which is in accord with the mores and values of their respective cultures. The economic orientation of the English Canadian culture impels English Canadian managers to strive to cope with this stressful,

competitive condition in an economic way, the acquisition of more functional work equipment.

It is important to note here that there is, in fact, much justification in this environment for better, more efficient equipment. Small businesses do indeed need these tools to survive and expand. However, there is no reason to believe that French Canadian firms need them less. Yet the reaction of French Canadian managers in this environment is to develop a very strong need to become specialists rather than to acquire more functional work equipment. This reaction is, of course, in line with the less economic but more authoritarian-oriented value system of the French Canadian culture. Instead of feeling a strong need to enhance the position of the company in an impersonal way, they develop an urgent need to strengthen the authority of their position by desiring to become more personally competent.

The dynamics of this "turning inward" to protect the self has been described elsewhere (see the Introduction to chapter V). Suffice it to say that the need expressed in Statement T is much more dysfunctional than the one reflected in Statement P in the sense that the requirements for expertise in small firms are much more limited than in large firms. This inappropriate response on the part of small firm French Canadian managers is an indication of the emotional nature of their reaction to stress, and reflects on the inability of the French Canadian to strongly identify or integrate with the economic function of business enterprises.

In the same vein, it can be seen in Table 8 that Salary (statement A) becomes less important to small firm French Canadian managers in comparison to those of large firms, while it remains just as important to both groups of English Canadian managers. Although Promotion (statement C) is less important to members of both cultures in small firms than to managers of large ones, nevertheless this incentive is a much more important one to English Canadian managers than to French Canadian managers of small firms, though both equally value this incentive in large companies. Thus, it is apparent that the needs of English Canadian small firm managers are much more in line with an ideology of economic growth and company expansion than is the case for French Canadian managers.

In concluding this study of the attitudes of small business managers, a few summary comments are in order. As mentioned earlier in this chapter the major purpose of this study was to determine whether or not the dramatic cultural differences found between the two ethnic groups at management levels in large organizations with respect to the three broad dimensions of industrial leadership (Organizational Goals, the Management of People, and Work Motivation) would also be revealed when the two groups were compared in companies of much smaller size. That these strikingly wide differences in attitude and outlook did in fact hold up in small business enterprises has been fully confirmed in this chapter.

As in large organizations, the two groups are widely divergent in

their evaluation of the Economic and Social-Humanitarian sets of goals. They differ significantly in the priorities they assign to the ten organizational objectives, and in the strength of feeling they attach to the importance of these objectives. As discussed previously, these results confirm the fact that the typical English Canadian manager is much more economic-oriented in his view of Organizational Goals than is his French Canadian colleague, while the latter shows a much stronger inclination than the former toward the Social-Humanitarian objectives of business organizations. The research results for small enterprises dramatically confirm also the research findings for the large organizations with respect to Goal Conflict, substantiating the fact that the two ethnic groups are "worlds apart" in their perceptions of the compatibility of business objectives with other personal goals. It was suggested in this context that the relatively stronger economic orientation of the small business French Canadian manager, in contrast to his ethnic counterpart in large organizations, very likely accounts for the sharper conflict he experiences with regard to money and material gain (a conflict which is even stronger than that characteristic of his large company French Canadian counterpart).

In addition, the small company research findings substantiate very strikingly the wide differences revealed in large corporations between the approaches of the two ethnic groups to the process of leadership. In small organizations, as in large ones, the typical French Canadian manager differs from his English Canadian colleague in his personal

philosophy of management (component I), in his approach to tasks and people (component II) and in his style of management (component III). With respect to the findings on Component II, it was suggested that the large organization and the small company represent industrial settings which differ rather widely in terms of respective levels of stress to which their management members are exposed. It was pointed out that the small company, in contrast with the large organization, is characterized by a strongly competitive, "fight for survival" mentality which generates a sense of tension and insecurity among its management members who, at senior levels, feel much more "under fire", likely more so than their large company counterparts. The research findings for both Task Orientation and Consideration of Others indicate that the two ethnic groups respond to this high tension in terms of their predominant cultural characteristics.

The English Canadian small company manager, being more identified with the goals of business, and being more egalitarian in his values, respond by emphasizing the task to be done, and is inclined to exert pressure on subordinates to achieve it. The French Canadian, being less identified with economic objectives and being a member of an essentially authoritarian culture, responds by "acting out" his tension and insecurity on others in the workplace, that is, by adopting a disciplinarian approach to subordinates. It was pointed out that, in contrast, the large company English Canadian manager, being exposed to less stress, tends to be less pressure-oriented in his approach to task accomplishment. The French Cana-

dian, in the context of a large corporation, tends strongly toward the "hard line" approach to subordinates, but is still much more inclined this way in the more stressful small business setting.

The analysis of the research findings on Work Motivation among small company managers still further substantiated the wide, culture-based disparity between the two groups which was clearly revealed to exist in large organizations. This disparity is, in fact, considerably greater in small than in large enterprises, with lower over-all agreement between the two ethnic groups in the importance they attach to the whole array of work incentives, and wider differences between the two groups on several specific work incentives, particularly those related to specialization in a specific job area, (statement T), and efficient work equipment and installations (statement P). As pointed out, the typical French Canadian manager is strongly motivated to develop expertise in a particular area of interest, while for the English Canadian manager, this motive is not a particularly impelling one. The English Canadian manager, however, strongly desires better equipment and facilities, while this is not a strong need for the French Canadian. This sharp difference with respect to these two incentives is not evident in large organizations. It was suggested that this contrast stems from the culture-based reactions of the two groups to the relatively strong degree of stress and tension which characterize the climate of small companies. The French Canadian manager's motivational strategy for dealing with this stress is to seek the comfort and security of expertise

in a limited field of endeavour, while the English Canadian strives to gain the competitive advantage of better facilities.

In addition to these large discrepancies, it was found that most of the major differences between the two groups with respect to their work motivation within large organizations occur in small companies as well, specifically those differences related to power and authority (statement J), job tenure (statement D), dealing with fewer people to get work done (statement Q) and better salary (statement A).

It is evident then, that an examination of the attitudes of French Canadians and English Canadians working in their own respective milieu, in which they are much freer to develop the climate within which they feel most comfortable, clearly reveals that as great and in many instances, even greater cultural differences exist than in large corporations, where they are in day-to-day interaction with each other. In fact, it is safe to say that the gap between the two groups is widened in small business. Though existing side by side within the narrow limits of a business community, the two groups remain virtually "strangers" in terms of their respective concepts of good leadership practices, economic orientation, and work motivation.

Chapter X

Cultural Differences in Leadership

Among French and English Canadian Students

Enrolled in Schools of Business

As mentioned earlier in this report (see chapter I, page 18), there were two reasons for studying the attitudes of French Canadian and English Canadian business students. First, since members of both ethnic groups very likely will be the business leaders of the future, it was considered of interest to determine whether or not differences exist in the attitudes they hold toward the three dimensions of industrial leadership (Organization Goals, the Management of People and Work Motivation), and if they do, to what extent these differences are large ethnic ones within the student population. Secondly, it was of interest to determine whether differences in attitudes found between the two groups of older, experienced members of the French Canadian and English Canadian cultures, those who already hold responsible positions in industry, would also exist between members of the two groups who had not as yet commenced their careers in the business world. Indeed, if large disparities in attitude do presently exist between French Canadian and English Canadian students of business, and if these differences are similar to the ones found to exist among present managers of large and small industrial organizations, it is likely that such culture-based differences will remain over time. The considerable impact this could have on the development of a Canadian bicultural economic system is obvious.

In this chapter, the problem of sampling is discussed, including the basic issues which were confronted, the decisions made with regard to these, and the procedure which was followed in the selection of business

schools and students within these schools. The general procedure utilized in the conduct of the study is then described, along with the techniques of measurement employed in the analysis of the data. Finally, the research results and interpretations of these results are presented.

Selection of the Sample

Sampling Considerations

As in the problem of selecting a sample for the study of large industrial organizations, (see chapter II, page 22), there were several major factors to be considered in choosing the sample for this study of business school students. Attention was initially directed toward four main issues. First, the total size of the sample of French Canadian and English Canadian students was an important consideration. Secondly, the number of schools to be included within which these students were enrolled was an issue at stake. Thirdly, the comprehensiveness of coverage of the business student body within these schools had to be decided upon, specifically, which year levels were to be included in each. Fourthly, the geographical and demographic representation of the schools was a problem which required a solution, since there are, of course, schools of business within universities which are spread across Canada, and these schools represent sharp variations in size, ethnic composition, and religious affiliation.

Prior to the actual selection of students to be included in the survey, the following general decisions were made with respect to these

four major issues. First, (as in the study of large business organizations), a completely representative sample of business schools existing in Canada was simply not possible to attain because of the enormous cost in time and resources that this would have involved, and of course the inevitable refusals of some schools to cooperate in the study. Two other alternatives to this approach were considered, but rejected by the researchers. These alternatives were: (1) selecting a large number of students from only one or two institutions (such as one from each culture), or (2) including in the study a few students from a large number of business schools.

The first alternative was abandoned chiefly because of the possibility that the peculiarities or unique features of the student body in one or two institutions would unduly influence the research results, providing a narrow and distorted picture of business students' attitudes. The second one was rejected mainly because it would have been an exceedingly costly and time-consuming task to make the great number of contacts or visits that this strategy would have entailed, too much so for the importance of this minor phase of our study. It was therefore decided to select a few schools, rather than one or two (or an exceedingly large number), concentrating our efforts on those which were considered important ones in the area of business education. One criterion which was considered essential in determining the importance of a business school was its size in terms of total enrollment of students, while a second one was whether or not it included in its program of

study both undergraduate and graduate levels of training. However, there were other crucial factors to consider, such as geographical location, ethnic composition and religious affiliation. Decisions made with regard to these criteria are discussed below.

With respect to business school size, it was considered best to select those of large enough size to constitute major sources of recruits for Canadian business. This criterion also served the purpose of increasing the likelihood of obtaining a reasonable rate of return of the questionnaires used in the research. It was decided therefore to classify the business schools of Canada into large, medium and small categories, having student bodies of more than three hundred, from one hundred to three hundred, and less than one hundred, respectively, and to select students only from the first two of these classifications. The population of small schools (less than one hundred students), was eliminated from consideration for inclusion in the study because the total number of students enrolled in all of these schools taken together is only approximately two hundred and eighty. It would have been too costly and time-consuming to have included these, and besides none of them offers graduate programs of study.

With respect to the coverage of year levels within each school, it was decided that in those schools which included both undergraduate and graduate programs of study, students would be selected from four year levels, namely: (1) the first undergraduate year, (2) the terminal or final undergraduate year, (3) the first year of the graduate level,

and (4) the final year of graduate academic training. In those schools which included only an undergraduate program, students would be selected from the first, and the terminal years of study. This was done so that the amount of learning which has taken place among students between their initial and their final year would be accounted for. It was expected that true cultural differences in attitudes between the two groups would be identified if they tended to show up at all four of these levels studied. It was felt that these extreme year levels would fully take into account the extent to which this learning could affect attitude changes while at the same time represent the "climate" of a school to an adequate degree. To have included the second and third years of training as well would have risked the danger of an excessive rate of refusal because of class scheduling problems encountered among other difficulties.

In considering the geographical representation of the sample to be selected, it was decided to choose business schools from across Canada since it is reasonable to suppose that students residing in different parts of the country would represent different shades of opinion toward the dimensions of industrial leadership included in the study, especially in view of the fact that Canadian industry itself is distributed unevenly across the country. The decision was made to consider Canada to be divisible into three major areas or regions, namely: Western (west of Ontario), Central (Ontario and Quebec) and Eastern (east of Quebec), and to select business schools representing each of these areas.

With regard to the ethnic composition of the student bodies of business schools, it was decided to select schools representing those in which the language of instruction is entirely English, and to select those in which the language of instruction is entirely French, so that the attitudes of students in these separate types of institutions would best reflect those of their respective cultural milieus. To have included French Canadian students enrolled in English Canadian institutions, and the reverse, was not a feasible alternative to this decision, since very few English Canadians and French Canadians attend each other's schools, and also since those who do could be influenced in terms of their attitudes by attendance in a school of the other ethnic group.

With respect to religious affiliation, it was decided to include within the sample of English Canadian business schools, two which were of Catholic affiliation so that the degree to which religion, as an aspect of culture, would contribute to attitude differences which might be found between the two ethnic groups of students, would be accounted for.

Selection of Business Schools

A study of all programs of training in business or commerce in Canada revealed that such programs were included in forty-four universities across the country. Of these, twenty-two were eliminated because their programs of training were restricted to a few courses leading to an Honors B.A. in Business or Commerce (and were not, therefore, degree-granting schools of business), and/or because these schools of business

were too small according to the criterion outlined earlier in this chapter.¹

There remained, then, a total of twenty-two schools of business or commerce from which the selection of a sample of students could be made. Table 1 shows the classification of these twenty-two schools according to geographical region, ethnic and religious affiliation, as well as types of degrees granted. It can be seen from Table 1, that of the twenty-two schools, ten have both undergraduate and graduate programs of study, while the remaining twelve have only undergraduate programs. Of the five French Canadian schools, it can be seen in Table 1 that four are situated in Central Canada, and one in the East. Of the four in the Central Region, three have both undergraduate and graduate programs, while one offers only undergraduate study. The single school situated in the East has both undergraduate and graduate training. The two schools in Central Canada with the largest enrollments and with both graduate and undergraduate levels of training were retained, and the two with the smallest enrollments (one with graduate training and one without), were dropped. The single school in the East was retained since it was the only one representing that region.

Of the three English Canadian Catholic schools, two were selected for our sample. In addition to selecting the only school in Central Canada, the school comprising the largest student body of the two in Eastern Canada was retained. It was obviously not possible to select for

¹ The data utilized for these decisions were obtained from a survey made in 1964 by D. E. Armstrong for the Association of Canadian School of Business.

Table 10.1 - Numbers of Schools of Business or Commerce in Canada Having More than One Hundred Students,
Shown by Geographical Region, Ethnic and Religious Affiliation and Level of Training.

Geographical Regions	French Canadian		English Canadian	
	Catholic	Non-Catholic	Catholic	Non-Catholic
	Undergrad. + Grad.	Undergrad. + Grad.	Undergrad. + Grad.	Undergrad. + Grad.
WESTERN				
CENTRAL	1	3	1	2
EASTERN		1	2	3
TOTALS	1	4	3	8

these regions a school possessing both an undergraduate and a graduate training program.

Of the fourteen English Canadian Non-Catholic business schools across Canada, shown in Table 1, a total of five were selected for inclusion in the study. Since fifty per cent of these schools are located in the Central Region, the largest three in terms of enrollment of the four schools having both a graduate and an undergraduate program were chosen from this region. The largest of the two schools offering both undergraduate and graduate study in the Western Region was retained for our sample. Since the student enrollment at this school is one of the largest in Canada, no other school in this region was approached to participate in the study. The fifth school was, of course, selected from the three medium-sized Eastern schools. Table 2 shows the classification of the ten schools selected for the sample, according to geographical region, ethnic and religious affiliation as well as type of program offered.

All ten schools agreed to participate in the research project. During the editing phase of the study, however, it was found that the number of usable questionnaire booklets was so low from two of the ten selected business schools, that it was necessary to exclude them from the final sample of schools.¹ One of these was the single French Canadian school in the Eastern Region of Canada, the other, a large school of the

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In one school, the return rate was too low. In the other school, the instructor, a member of our staff, did not give sufficiently clear instructions. As a result, it was not possible to identify at what academic year level the respondents were.

Table 10.2 - Sample of Schools of Business or Commerce Chosen to Participate in the Survey, Shown by Geographical Region, Ethnic and Religious Affiliation and Level of Training.

Geographical Regions	French Canadian Catholic		English Canadian Catholic		Non-Catholic	
	Undergrad.	Undergrad. + Grad.	Undergrad.	Undergrad. + Grad.	Undergrad.	Undergrad. + Grad.
WESTERN						1
CENTRAL		2	1			3
EASTERN		1	1		1	
TOTALS	0	3	2	0	1	4

English Canadian Non-Catholic grouping in the Central Region (see table 2). Due to time limitations at this late phase in the research, it was not possible to replace these schools with two other ones for inclusion in the study. Thus, the final sample from which students were to be selected consisted of a total of eight schools. These are shown in Table 3 (according to the same classification system used in tables 1 and 2).

Selection of Students within each School

All participating schools were asked to indicate the total number of students presently enrolled in the first and final years of the undergraduate as well as the graduate programs (for those schools who had both). Since the questionnaire was administered approximately one month prior to the end of the academic year, it was specified that the schools were to indicate the number of full-time students who were still in attendance at the time of the survey. In other words, the drop-outs, part-time or partial students were not to be included in this count. In terms of ethnic origin, the two ethnic groups of students were defined as those students who are English-speaking Canadians enrolled in an English Canadian institution and those who are French-speaking Canadians enrolled in a French-speaking institution (according to the same criteria utilized in the two previous industrial studies, see pages 33 to 40 of chapter II). In order to determine as accurately as possible the size of the population of students in each of these academic years then, the schools were also requested to specify the number of female and foreign students presently enrolled. Finally, English Canadian schools were urged to identify students of French Canadian origin by listing their names, the name of

Table 10.3 - Final Sample of Schools of Business or Commerce Included in the Survey, Shown by Geographical Region, Ethnic and Religious Affiliation and Level of Training.

Geographical Regions	French Canadian Catholic		English Canadian Catholic		Non-Catholic	
	Undergrad.	Undergrad. + Grad.	Undergrad.	Undergrad. + Grad.	Undergrad.	Undergrad. + Grad.
WESTERN						1
CENTRAL		2	1			2
EASTERN			1		1	
TOTALS	0	2	2	0	1	3

the school or college from which they came, and their home province. The size of the population of students was then determined by subtracting from the total number of students enrolled the number of female and foreign students, as well as all French Canadian students from the Province of Quebec or from another province, but having attended a French school or college prior to their enrollment in the business school.¹

In order to simplify the administrative procedure, all students of the designated school years were asked to fill out the questionnaire and during the editing phase of these questionnaires, respondents that did not meet the requirements discussed above for inclusion in this study's student population, as well as all respondents turning in an incomplete questionnaire, were eliminated. Table 4 presents the return rate of usable questionnaires for each of the four academic years within each school. It can be seen that the rate of return is generally quite high. Of the twenty-three academic years represented in Table 4, the return rate is fifty percent or better in fifteen and in only three does it drop below forty percent. It can also be seen from this table that many cell entries (sub-groups) do not provide a sufficiently large number of students to warrant a separate analysis of results for all sub-groups. In eight of the twenty-three cells comprising respondents, for instance,

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This procedure was not necessary in the two French Canadian schools where it was found that a total of only five English Canadian students were enrolled in one or the other school.

Table 10.4 - Percentage of Students who Returned Completed Questionnaires, Including Numbers of Students Enrolled (S.E.) and Numbers of Respondents (R.), for each of Four Academic Levels of Training Within Each Business School¹ Included in the Study.

S c h o o l	Undergraduate Level						Graduate Level					
	First Year			Final Year			First Year			Final Year		
	S.E.	R.	%	S.E.	R.	%	S.E.	R.	%	S.E.	R.	%
A	173	136	79	86	36	42	112	41	37	55	28	51
B	249	122	49	204	143	70	-	-	-	121	71	59
C	265	109	41	110	67	61	-	-	-	-	-	-
D	87	46	53	70	19	27	16	10	62	18	11	60
E	117	46	40	71	35	51	39	27	70	32	20	63
F	51	29	57	25	18	72	-	-	-	-	-	-
G	42	21	50	20	20	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
H	143	37	27	38	18	40	-	-	-	-	-	-

¹ No further information is given on each school in order to respect as much as possible the anonymity of the schools.

the number of students is less than twenty-five. For the analysis of the data then, it became necessary to combine sub-groups in order to make the cross-cultural comparisons more meaningful.

Table 5 presents the number of students in each of the combined groupings that were made along with the percentage return rate of usable questionnaires that this number represents. In order to familiarize the reader with the general method of analysis used throughout the study for the detection of significant trends of cultural differences, a description of how the sign test was applied to the data originating from the groups represented in this table appears warranted. The four columns presented in Table 5 contain four specific categories of students, going from left to right on the table: (1) students who are in their first year of undergraduate work toward the attainment of a Bachelor of Commerce (or equivalent) degree (B.C.1), (2) students who are in their final undergraduate year (B.C.F.), (3) students who are in their first year of graduate studies toward the attainment of an M.B.A. degree (GR. 1), and (4) students who are in their final year of graduate work (GR. F).

The four rows categorize these same students on the basis of ethnic origin, religion and schools. All Non-Catholic school students were combined to form the first row category. The second row groups the students enrolled in Catholic English Canadian business schools. Since all French Canadian business schools are Catholic, it was obviously not possible to distinguish between schools on this factor for the French Canadian students.

Table 10.5 - Numbers of Student Respondents Enrolled in English Canadian Non-Catholic (E.C. Non-Cath.) and Catholic (E.C. Cath.) Schools, French Canadian School A (F.C. School A) and French Canadian School B (F.C. School B) at the First (B.C. 1) and Final (B.C. F.) Years of Undergraduate, and the First (GR. 1) and Final (GR. F.) Years of Graduate Levels of Academic Training, Including the Percentage Return Rate Each Number Represents.

Schools	B.C. 1	B.C. F.	GR. 1	GR. F.
E.C. Non-Cath.	230 (44%)	139 (50%)	37 (70%)	31 (62%)
E.C. Cath.	58 (31%)	38 (70%)	- -	- -
F.C. School A	136 (79%)	36 (42%)	41 (37%)	29 (51%)
F.C. School B	122 (49%)	143 (70%)	- -	71 (59%)

In addition, because only two French Canadian schools were available for the study, and since both yielded a substantial number of students, they were listed separately as School A (the third row), and School B (the fourth row).

With this design, eleven meaningful ethnic comparisons can be made, four in each of the two first columns, one in the third column and two in the fourth one. Thus, in analyzing the mean scores on a particular scale, for instance, the mean of French Canadian School A students of the first column (B.C.1) is compared to the mean of both Catholic and Non-Catholic English Canadian students of the same column. The same comparisons are made for the means of French Canadian School B students of this column. This constitutes a total of four comparisons for students who appear in the first column of the table. The same procedure is repeated for the second column (B.C.F.). In the remaining two columns, obviously only three ethnic comparisons can be made. Any ethnic comparison between columns would have been a biased one because it would inevitably have confounded ethnicity with learning.

Religion in this design serves, of course, as a control to take into account the possible influence of Catholicism on these attitude dimensions. That is, it was deemed important to make certain that the attitudes of English Canadian students represented, proportionately speaking, the English Canadian Catholic viewpoint or trend of thought in business schools.

In this respect, it should be pointed out that although ninety-nine percent of our sample of students enrolled in the French Canadian schools are members of the Roman Catholic faith, students enrolled in English Canadian schools, especially those of Non-Catholic schools, are somewhat more heterogeneous in terms of religious affiliation. Specifically, eighty-five percent of the respondents in English Canadian Catholic schools are Roman Catholic, while thirteen percent are of the Protestant faith. In Non-Catholic schools, sixty-three percent are members of the Protestant faith, and ten percent are Roman Catholic. Eleven percent are members of the Jewish faith, while another eleven percent do not belong to any religious faith. The other five percent belong to other religious denominations. In view of the fact that there are approximately as many Catholic students in Non-Catholic English Canadian schools as there are Non-Catholic students in Catholic English Canadian schools and that both percentages are rather low (ten and fifteen percent), it was felt that for all practical purposes, the data from students enrolled in Non-Catholic schools should be interpreted as essentially reflecting a Non-Catholic viewpoint while the data stemming from students enrolled in Catholic schools, even in English Canadian schools, should be interpreted as representing a Catholic point of view.

It can be seen from the data in Table 5 that the percentages of students who answered the questionnaires are fairly high. Only two of the thirteen groups have a return rate below forty percent. In seven groups, the return rate is above fifty percent and four of these are in the seventies.

General Procedure and Measurement Techniques Employed

Two major considerations guided the researchers in their choice of the specific procedures utilized in the conduct of the survey. The first was, of course, the wide geographical spread of cities across Canada where the Business Schools to be included in the study were located. The amount of time and expense which would have been entailed had personal contacts and visits for administering the questionnaire been made would have been prohibitive. Yet, it was deemed important, and this was our second major consideration, to generate maximum motivation among students to ensure a minimum acceptable response rate. Because the Questionnaire Booklet was long and complex in content, it was feared that a simple mail-out of questionnaires to individual students might not provide enough incentive for them to take the time to complete them, especially in view of the fact that final exams were only three to four weeks away. It was, therefore, considered essential to enlist the personal cooperation of the academic staff in each school in order to impress upon the students that the school's level of endorsement of this survey went far beyond the stage of giving an outside group permission to do research within the school premises during the academic year. Specifically, the following procedural steps were taken:

(1) Letters were forwarded to the Dean of each school of business selected for inclusion in the survey.¹ The letter briefly outlined the purposes of the study, requested cooperation of the school in the study

¹ The interested reader will find a sample copy of this letter Appendix O .

and guaranteed that both the identity of the school and individual student whose opinions were to be surveyed, would be held in strictest confidence.

(2) Each school appointed a member of the academic staff to serve as project coordinator. The coordinator was briefed by a member of our staff and his role essentially consisted in introducing the survey project to students, enlisting their cooperation and handling all problems of local arrangements during the data-gathering phase of the project. To ensure uniformity from one school to another, each coordinator was provided with a written text to be read to students in class and then posted.¹ The coordinator was, of course, reminded not to engage in any discussion on this topic that might in any way influence the attitudes of students prior to their answering the questionnaire.

(3) The actual data-gathering strategies varied from one school to the other, and in a few schools, from one academic year level to the other. In most instances, supervised group sessions were scheduled outside of class time. In some cases these sessions were held during class time and in a few classes, the questionnaires were distributed to students at the end of a period with instructions to return the questionnaires to the professor in a week's time. For the supervised group sessions, the supervisor was a member of our staff in four schools (who preferred it that way). In the six other schools, the supervisor was the appointed coordinator who

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A copy of the text can be found in Appendix O.

was thoroughly briefed by a member of our staff on the questionnaire content and on how to handle the sessions.¹

The dimensions of industrial leadership investigated in this study are the same as those that were dealt with in the study of both large and small business organizations, namely: Organizational Goals, the Management of People, and Work Motivation. The measurement techniques utilized are therefore the same as those which were employed in these former studies. The application of the sign test to the data of the student population has already been described elsewhere (see page 739).

As was the case in the study of small companies, the attitude scales analyzed in each of the three dimensions of the study (goals, management and motivation) were the same as those which were derived in the large organizations study, hence no intercorrelations among the statements were necessary in this present study. Since the study of business students was intended to provide us with an opportunity to see whether the major cultural trends of differences found in both large and small business organizations would hold up as well among the coming generation of business leaders, a detailed analysis of each attitude statement comprising each scale was not warranted. As in the study of small business organizations, this investigation was therefore limited to contrasting the two ethnic groups on the major scale dimensions identified in the study of large organizations.

¹ To ensure uniformity, a written copy of essential steps to take was sent to each coordinator, see Appendix O .

Research Results

The Evaluation of Goals

The research findings of this section will be presented in three stages. First, an analysis is made of the mean number of times Economic Goals were chosen over Social-Humanitarian ones by the groups of students that took part in this study. This is followed by an analysis of trends of the rankings these students assigned to each of the ten goals. Finally, the Strength of Feeling the respective groups have toward these goals taken separately is examined with a view to making the previous analysis of ranks more explicit.

(A) Preference for Value Systems:

Economic Versus Social-Humanitarian Goals

Table 6 presents the mean scores of the thirteen groups on the economic orientation index derived from the partial paired-comparison questionnaire.¹

An examination of the eleven ethnic comparisons that can be made² reveals that the means of English Canadian students surpass those of French Canadian students in seven cases. The French Canadian mean is superior to the English Canadian mean in three, the mean of each ethnic group being equal in the other comparison. This trend of differences is not a statistically significant one with the use of the sign

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The reader is referred to pages 110 and 111 of Chapter IV for a description of this index. ² Only eleven ethnic comparisons are meaningful. The reader is referred to page 739 for a description of these comparisons.

Table 10.6 - Distributions of the Mean Number of Times Economic Goals are Chosen over Social-Humanitarian Goals by English Canadian Non-Catholic (E.C. Non-Cath.) and Catholic (E.C. Cath.) Students, French Canadian Students of School A (F.C. School A) and School B (F.C. School B) at the First (B.C. 1) and Final (B.C. F.) Years of Undergraduate, and the First (GR. 1) and Final (GR. F.) Years of Graduate Levels of Academic Training.

Schools	B.C. 1	B.C. F.	GR. 1	GR. F.
E.C. Non-Cath.	(214) [*] 15.9	(133) 17.8	(37) 17.8	(28) 18.2
E.C. Cath.	(50) 13.9	(33) 14.2	-	-
F.C. School A	(122) 14.4	(32) 17.1	(40) 14.5	(26) 17.3
F.C. School B	(108) 14.2	(137) 14.2	-	(67) 15.1

* The number of students is shown in parentheses.

test. Thus, contrary to the industrial findings, it has not been established in this study with any reasonable degree of confidence that English Canadian students are, on the whole, more economic-oriented than are French Canadian students.

In this context, it is interesting to note that if one excludes the two English Canadian Catholic groups from these ethnic comparisons, in all of the seven remaining ones, the English Canadian mean surpasses the French Canadian mean and this trend is, of course, statistically significant. It is clear that religious affiliation does contribute to the shaping of the attitudes of students toward economic values. Regarding the social philosophy of business, there exist then both a "Protestant ethic"¹ and a "Catholic ethic" orientation. This finding is consistent with the results of Chapter VII where the relation between Religious Affiliation and these attitudes was established for managers of large business firms.

As was the case for managers of small business firms, both student ethnic groups significantly value Economic goals over Social-Humanitarian ones, as seen by the fact that all thirteen means are higher than the criterion of 12.5 used to establish the significance of this trend (see page 116 of chapter IV).

Finally, it can be seen from the results that, with the exception of the French Canadian School B undergraduate groups, final year

¹ The reader will recall that the majority of students in the non-denominational schools are members of the Protestant faith.

students of both ethnic groups are more economic-oriented than are first year students of their respective schools, a trend which is also significant. Thus, extensive academic exposure to the study of business principles and their industrial applications generally has an effect on the attitudes of students in the direction of rendering them more economic-oriented.¹ In this context, it is important to note that the effect of this academic exposure is very limited for French Canadian students of School B, in contrast to those of School A. However, while academic training serves to reduce considerably the gap between the English Canadian Non-Catholic students and those of School A, the magnitude of the differences between these same English Canadian students and the French Canadian students of School B remains essentially the same.

(B) Rankings of Organizational Goals

Having established that both ethnic groups are, on the whole, more economic-oriented than social-humanitarian oriented in their evaluation of the goals of business, the next step consists in determining whether or not any cultural differences exist in their evaluation of each separate goal, despite this over-all economic orientation on their part. As in the two previous industrial studies, the rank orderings of

¹ The reader is reminded that this is not a longitudinal study. It is assumed here that the average final year student was at the mean level of present first year students when he himself was in first year. Strictly speaking, a longitudinal study is needed to establish the veracity of this assumption. However, in the present circumstances, this interpretation seems to be a reasonable one to make.

mean choices of each goal for each of these student groups were determined. These ranks are shown in Table 7.

As discussed in previous chapters, if a rank difference between the two ethnic groups for a given goal is a truly cultural one, one would expect to find this difference to be consistently in the same direction for each of the eleven ethnic comparisons that can meaningfully be made in this study. To evaluate the significance of these rank difference trends, the summated rank difference index utilized in the study of Work Motivation in large industry was computed for each goal (see page 530 of chapter VI), and the goals are presented following an ordering based upon the descending magnitude of this index, as was done in Table 6.7. The sign test was utilized to determine the statistical significance of these trends.¹ Table 8 of this chapter presents a summary of these rank difference trends.

Before discussing these trends, an examination of the ranks shown in Table 7 reveals that, generally speaking, both ethnic groups give top priority to Goal D and consider least important Goals I and J. Similarly, they generally agree on their rankings of Goal B, a goal they value more (among the top five), and Goal A, one they value less (among the bottom five ranks). Thus, students of business schools, be they from French Canadian or English Canadian institutions, consider the

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The reader is referred to page 530 of Chapter VI for further information on the use of this method of analysis. The reader is also referred to page 155 of Chapter IV, where the goals are listed along with the letter used to designate each one.

Table 10.7 - Priority Rankings of Ten Organizational Goals by English Canadian Non-Catholic Students (E.C.-N-C), English Canadian Catholic Students (E.C.-C), French Canadian Students of School A (F.C.-A) and French Canadian Students of School B (F.C.-B), at the First and Final Years of Undergraduate and Graduate Levels of Training, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for Each Comparison, and Summated Rank Differences for the Eleven Possible Comparisons.

Goals	Undergraduate Level - Introductory Year											
	E.C. N-C	F.C. A	R.D. (1)	E.C. N-C	F.C. B	R.D. (2)	E.C. C	F.C. A	R.D. (3)	E.C. C	F.C. B	R.D. (4)
E	2	6	4	2	7	5	5	6	1	5	7	2
C	6	5	1	6	5	1	7	5	2	7	5	2
F	4	2	2	4	2	2	2	2	0	2	2	0
H	7	7	0	7	6	1	6	7	-1	6	6	0
I	10	10	0	10	10	0	10	10	0	10	10	0
J	9	9	0	9	9	0	9	9	0	9	9	0
G	5	4	1	5	4	1	4	4	0	4	4	0
B	3	3	0	3	3	0	3	3	0	3	3	0
A	8	8	0	8	8	0	8	8	0	8	8	0
D	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0

Table 10.7 - Priority Rankings of Ten Organizational Goals by English Canadian Non-Catholic Students (E.C.-N-C), English Canadian Catholic Students (E.C.-C), French Canadian Students of School A (F.C.-A) and French Canadian Students of School B (F.C.-B), at the First and Final Years of Undergraduate and Graduate Levels of Training, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for Each Comparison, and Summated Rank Differences for the Eleven Possible Comparisons (continued).

Goals	Undergraduate Level - Final Year											
	E.C.	F.C.	R.D.	E.C.	F.C.	R.D.	E.C.	F.C.	R.D.	E.C.	F.C.	R.D.
	N-C	A	(5)	N-C	B	(6)	C	A	(7)	C	B	(8)
E	1	5	4	1	6	5	3	5	2	3	6	3
C	6.5	4	2.5	6.5	7	-.5	7	4	3	7	7	0
F	4	3	1	4	1	3	2	3	-1	2	1	1
H	8	8	0	8	3.5	4.5	6	8	-2	6	3.5	2.5
I	10	10	0	10	10	0	9	10	1	9	10	1
J	9	9	0	9	9	0	10	9	1	10	9	1
G	5	6	-1	5	3.5	1.5	5	6	-1	5	3.5	1.5
B	3	2	-1	3	5	2	4	2	-2	4	5	1
A	6.5	7	.5	6.5	8	1.5	8	7	-1	8	8	0
D	2	1	-1	2	2	0	1	1	0	1	2	1

Table 10.7 - Priority Rankings of Ten Organizational Goals by English Canadian Non-Catholic Students (E.C.-N-C), English Canadian Catholic Students (E.C.-C), French Canadian Students of School A (F.C.-A), and French Canadian Students of School B (F.C.-B), at the First and Final Years of Undergraduate and Graduate Levels of Training, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for Each Comparison, and Summated Rank Differences for the Eleven Possible Comparisons (concluded).

Goals	Graduate Level									Summated Rank Difference ¹
	First Year			Final Year			Final Year			
	E.C. N-C	F.C. A	R.D. (9)	E.C. N-C	F.C. A	R.D. (10)	E.C. N-C	F.C. B	R.D. (11)	
E	3	3	0	1	5.5	4.5	1	4.5	3.5	34
C	7	7	0	7.5	5.5	2	7.5	7	.5	13.5
F	4	1	3	4	4	0	4	2.5	1.5	12.5
H	8	6	2	7.5	8	-.5	7.5	6	1.5	8
I	10	10	0	9	10	1	9	10	1	4
J	9	9	0	10	9	1	10	9	1	4
G	5.5	4	1.5	5	7	-2	5	4.5	.5	3
B	2	5	3	3	3	0	3	2.5	-.5	2.5
A	5.5	8	2.5	6	1	-5	6	8	2	.5
D	1	2	1	2	2	0	2	1	-1	0

¹ This index is an algebraic sum of the rank difference (R.D.) columns 1 to 11. Since it is a trend index, all reversals to the major trend are given a minus sign (-).

production of a good quality product (D) and good service (B) to be very important goals. On the other hand, they consider the reduction of unemployment (J), the participation of business in the development of community institutions (I) and taking a greater share of the market (A) to be among the least important goals that a company should pursue. These findings are very much in line with those of managers in small and large organizations.

Turning to the rank difference trends, the results of Table 8 reveal that French Canadian students give a significantly higher priority to one Economic Goal (C) and two Social-Humanitarian goals (F and J). The summated rank difference for Goal C, as shown in Table 7 is 13.5, the second highest index score. Thus, the trend is a relatively strong one. What is more important, however, is the fact that whereas seven French Canadian student groups place this goal among the top five in priority, no English Canadian student group assigns a rank higher than six to this goal. To increase the level of production on a yearly basis then, is generally much more important to French Canadian students than it is to English Canadian students. This difference trend appears for the first time here. Managers of both ethnic groups in small and large firms rank this goal at approximately the same level.

The summated rank difference for Goal F is 12.5, as seen in Table 7, another relatively large index score. Though both ethnic groups place this goal among those of primary importance to them (among the top five), nevertheless, French Canadian students consider the introduction of

Table 10.8 - Listing of the Ten Organizational Goals, Showing for Each the Number of Times the English Canadian Students Give a Higher Priority Rank than French Canadian Students do, ($EC > FC$), the Number of Times the Priority Rank Is Equal ($EC = FC$) and the Number of Times French Canadian Students Give a Higher Priority Rank than do English Canadian Students ($FC > EC$).

GOALS	$EC > FC$	$EC = FC$	$FC > EC$
A	4	5	2
B	3	5	3
C *	1	2	8
D	2	7	2
E *	10	1	0
F *	1	3	7
G	3	2	6
H	3	3	5
I *	4	7	0
J *	0	7	4

* Indicates a statistically significant trend (sign test).

good human relations practices for better production to be more important than do English Canadian students. This finding is, of course, consistent with the previously discussed trend of differences for Goal C (raise the production level) as well as with the findings of the industrial management studies.

The rank difference trend for Goal J is obviously a small one (an index score of four). It is, nevertheless, significant because on all four occasions in which the differences occur, French Canadian students assigned a higher rank to it. Thus, although both ethnic groups consider the reduction of unemployment to be of relatively minor importance to them, French Canadian students have a tendency to consider this goal to be somewhat more important than do English Canadian students. In the industrial firm studies, this goal was never ranked differentially by the ethnic groups of managers.

English Canadian students, on the other hand, give a significantly higher priority to one Economic Goal (E) and one Social-Humanitarian one, Goal I (see table 8). As seen in Table 7, the summated rank difference score for Goal E is one of very large magnitude, 34, by far the largest trend difference shown in this table. All eleven English Canadian groups consider this goal to be of primary importance (among the top five). In contrast, seven French Canadian groups consider it to be of secondary importance (among the bottom five). Thus, English Canadian students value the pursuit of profit to a much greater extent than do French Canadian students. Since similar large differences between the two ethnic groups

were found to exist in both management studies, the different values each of these two groups attach to the notion of profit appears to be the most profound and significant cultural difference existing between them.

Regarding Goal I, the trend is similar to the one found for Goal J, but in the opposite direction. Though both ethnic groups consider the participation in community affairs to be of secondary importance to them, English Canadian students have a tendency to consider this goal to be of somewhat greater importance. In the organizational studies, this goal was never ranked differentially by the two ethnic groups.

In terms of rank discrepancies then, these findings confirm the cultural differences found to exist between the two groups in large and small firms with regard to Goals E and F. The other differences appear, however, for the first time (an economic goal, E, and two social-humanitarian ones, I and J), the significance of which will become clearer after examining the strength of feelings these two ethnic groups have toward each of these goals.

(C) Strength of Feeling Associated with Goals

Table 9 presents a summary of the difference trends between the mean choices of each of the eleven ethnic student group comparisons for each of the goals. The tables from which these trends are derived are included in Appendix H. To illustrate, an examination of the eleven comparisons for Goal A presented in Table 1 of Appendix H reveals that in eight of eleven comparisons, the French Canadian mean is superior to

Table 10.9 - Listing of the Ten Organizational Goals, Showing for Each the Number of Times the Mean Choices of English Canadian Students Exceed those of French Canadians Students ($EC > FC$), the Number of Times the Means are Equal ($EC = FC$) and the Number of Times the French Canadian Mean Exceeds that of English Canadians ($FC > EC$)

GOALS	$EC > FC$	$EC = FC$	$FC > EC$
A *	2	1	8
B *	10	0	1
C *	0	0	11
D *	9	0	2
E *	11	0	0
F	4	1	6
G	3	2	6
H *	3	0	8
I *	8	2	1
J *	0	0	11

* Indicates a statistically significant trend (sign test).

the English Canadian mean, in two others, the English Canadian mean surpasses the French Canadian mean, while in the remaining comparison, the means are equal. The reader will note that this trend is presented in Table 9 for Goal A.

The analysis of these trends reveals that, with the exception of Goal F,¹ the ethnic differences established by the analysis of ranks are also prevalent in this analysis (goals C, E, I and J). In this regard, it is interesting to note that in this analysis of these four goals, the trends are much more pronounced than in the corresponding analysis of rank differences trends shown in Table 8. For example, only four rank differences out of eleven possible, occurred with regard to Goal J, all in the direction of French Canadian students attributing a higher rank to these differences. In this analysis, however, all eleven French Canadian means surpassed the corresponding English Canadian means. Thus, for these four goals, it is clear that ethnic differences do exist.

This analysis of Strength of Feeling reveals four additional trends which become significant among students of each ethnic group, Goals A, B, D and H. Although the analysis of ranks did not reveal any significant trends of differences for these goals, the results shown in Table 9 clearly indicate that French Canadian students value more highly than do

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For Goal F, two of the tied ranks revealed mean differences which were in the direction of English Canadian students valuing slightly more this goal than the French Canadian students. Thus, over-all, no significant differences can be clearly established between the two ethnic groups on this goal.

English Canadian students the increase of a company's share of the market (A) and the happiness of employees (H). Conversely, English Canadian students endorse to a greater extent the customer relations aspect of business in terms of service (B) and quality products (D).

In comparing these trend results to those of large organizations (table 4.24) and small firms (table 9.4), it can be seen that for the student population, the trends of differences observed in the management studies are confirmed for Economic Goals B, D, and E, and for Social-Humanitarian Goals H and J. Thus, for these particular goals, the wide divergences in viewpoint between French and English Canadians within the realm of business are deeply embedded in the culture to which they belong and are likely to be long-enduring, since they are largely unaffected by formal educational training in business and are in effect transmitted from one generation to another. English Canadians engaged in the world of business are much more customer-oriented than French Canadians as reflected in the importance they attach to various organizational goals, and in contrast to French Canadians, they strongly endorse the profit motive of business enterprises. On the other hand, French Canadians manifest a much greater concern for the happiness of individuals at work and the reduction of unemployment among members of the society to which they belong.

Although ethnic differences also exist with regard to each of these two groups' valuations of the remaining five goals, they are not

as consistent or widespread as the former. French Canadian business students endorse more highly than do English Canadian students Economic Goals C and A. Increasing systematically the level of production (C) as well as the company's share of the market (A) is more important to these French Canadian students than to English Canadian students. Yet no differences were found to exist between French Canadian and English Canadian managers in terms of Goal C. As for Goal A, the trends of differences are in the opposite direction in the management studies previously reported, and the small firm trend is statistically significant (see tables 4.24 and 9.4). In terms of these two economic goals then, significant intergenerational differences exist.

Intergenerational differences also exist for one of the Social-Humanitarian goals, I. Although in both management studies, it was found that French Canadian managers value the "community welfare" goal to a significantly greater extent than do English Canadian managers, the opposite is true among business students. Finally, it should be noted that whereas, again in both management studies, French Canadian managers valued Goals F and G more than did their English Canadian counterparts, no significant trends of differences were found between English Canadian and French Canadian students on these two goals. However, both trends shown in Table 9 are in the expected direction and an examination of Tables 6 and 7 of Appendix H reveals that for both goals the seven comparisons between French Canadian students and Non-Catholic English Canadian students yield significant trends in the direction of French Canadian

students endorsing more highly these goals (six French Canadian means are superior to the corresponding English Canadian ones, the seventh comparison having equal means).

The factors which account for the fact that French Canadian business students were found to be, from an over-all standpoint, as economic-oriented as their English Canadian colleagues, in contrast to what was found in the management studies, are now clear. In essence, contrary to their ethnic "seniors" in the world of business, French Canadian students give a distinctly higher priority to Goals A and C than do their English Canadian counterparts. This increased concern for these two economic goals by French Canadian students is not, however, accompanied by a corresponding relatively greater acceptance of the three other economic goals, Goals B, D and E, all of which are, in fact, basic requirements for the fulfilment of Goals A and C. The median difference between the differences in means of the two ethnic groups in the large organization study is .3 for Goal B (see table 4.15) and the difference between the two means in the small firm study is .2 (see table 9.4). In this study, the median difference is .5 (see table 3 of appendix H). Thus, although in all three studies, the discrepancies between the two ethnic groups are significant, all in the direction of English Canadian respondents giving a higher priority to Goal B, the difference between the two ethnic groups is somewhat larger in the student population than in the population of business managers.

This type of analysis reveals a similar trend for Goal D.

That is, the difference between the two groups is larger in the student population (a median difference of .8 as seen by the data of table 7 of appendix H), than in the management population of large (a median difference of .3 as revealed by the data in table 4.7) and small firms (a difference of .1 as shown in table 9.4). Regarding Goal E, the median difference between the two ethnic groups in the study of large organizations is 1.0 (see the data of table 4.18). In small firms, the difference is 2.2 (see table 9.4) while in this study, the median difference based on the data of Table 9 of Appendix H is 1.6.

On the whole then, comparing differences between the two ethnic groups in these three studies, one finds that the discrepancy between the two ethnic groups increases in the student population for Goals B and D. With regard to Goal E, although the discrepancy is somewhat lower than is the case in the small firm study, it is nevertheless somewhat larger than the discrepancy found in the large organization study. If then, French Canadian students are, on the whole, as economic-oriented as English Canadian students are, it is only because of a significant change in the relative evaluation each of these two groups give to Goals A and C. It is due to the fact that "to progressively take a greater share of the market" (goal A) and "to raise from year to year the level of production of the company" (goal C) are two economic ambitions or ideals which are instilled in the minds of students in French Canadian schools to a greater extent than is the case for students of English

Canadian schools. The fact that the two ethnic groups remain as far, or even further apart than is the case in the two previous studies with regard to Goals B (customer service), D (good quality product), and E (profit), indicates that this intergenerational change in the differences between the two ethnic groups in no way affects the wide gap existing between them in their basic attitudes toward profit and/or the needs of customers. It is the opinion of the researchers that this change then is the result of the French Canadian's recent increased awareness of the importance of becoming centrally involved in the economic progress of his province. Being conscious of the secondary role he now plays, it is only natural for him to strive to improve his position by wanting to "produce more" (goal C) and "to increase his share of the market" (goal A). It is apparent, however, that the French Canadian culture adamantly resists modifying its ideology with regard to the basic value of capitalistic society, Profit. It would appear then that this increased concern for industrial expansion on the part of French Canadian students constitutes a movement toward Socialism rather than an acceptance of Capitalism as an economic system.

Goal Conflict and Leadership Scales

Tables 10 and 11 present respectively a summary of the difference trends between the mean choices of each of the eleven ethnic student group comparisons for each of the Goal Conflict Scales (A to G) and each of the Leadership Scales (H to O). The tables from which these trends are derived are included in Appendix I and Appendix J. Turning to the Goal

Table 10.10- Listing of Goal Conflict Scales, Showing for Each the Number of Times the Mean Scores of English Canadian Students Exceed those of French Canadian Students ($EC > FC$), the Number of Times the Means are Equal ($EC = FC$) and the Number of Times the French Canadian Mean Exceeds that of English Canadian ($FC > EC$).

Goal Conflict Scales	$EC > FC$	$EC = FC$	$FC > EC$
A Family	3	6	2
B Family	10	0	1
C Family	0	0	11
D Individual	10	0	1
E Society	11	0	0
F Society	6	1	4
G Personal Gain	11	0	0

* Indicates a statistically significant trend (sign test)

Table 10.11- Listing of Leadership Scales, Showing for Each the Number of Times the Mean Scores of English Canadian Students Exceed those of French Canadian Students ($EC > FC$), the Number of Times the Means are Equal ($EC = FC$) and the Number of Times the French Canadian Mean Exceeds that of English Canadian ($FC > EC$).

Leadership Scales	EC > FC	EC = FC	FC > EC
H Interpersonal Premises	0	0	11*
H1 Interpersonal Premises	2	1	8
I Status Needs	0	0	11*
J Task Orientation	0	1	10*
K Task Orientation	9	1	1*
L Consideration of Others	10	0	1*
M Consideration of Others	0	0	11*
N Participation in Decisions	11	0	0*
O Supervisory Control	11	0	0*

* Indicates a statistically significant trend (sign test).

Conflict Scales, the results shown in Table 10 indicate that with the exception of Scales A and F, the trends of ethnic differences found to exist in the management studies are also prevalent in the population of business students. English Canadian students perceive significantly less conflict than do French Canadian students between remuneration policies and family welfare (scale B), are much less prone to subordinate family life to the duties and responsibilities of a manager (scale C), express less conflict between their future role as industrial managers and their personal ideals and aspirations in relation to industry (scale D) as well as their role as contributing members of the welfare of society (scale E), and finally, have generally much more favorable attitudes toward people motivated by money (scale G). On these dimensions then, it is clear that major cultural differences exist between French and English Canadians.

In examining the French Canadian school results for each of these scales (see tables 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11 and 13 of appendix I), it can be seen that final year students of both levels of academic training perceive less conflict than first year students for Scales B,¹C (except GR. F. of school B), D (except GR. F. of school B), E and G (except GR. F. of school A). On the whole then, academic training does tend to reduce the level of perceived conflict of students attending French Canadian business schools. The gap between French and English Canadian

¹ For school B, the GR. F. mean is compared to the B.C.F. mean since there are no GR. 1 students.

final year students nevertheless generally remains a wide one and it is safe to conclude that French Canadian graduates enter the business world at a much higher level of conflict regarding the general content of these scales than do English Canadian graduates.

On two scales, A and F, no significant trends of differences were found between the two student ethnic groups. Yet in both management studies, it was shown that English Canadian managers perceive less conflict than do French Canadian managers between organizational goals and the general welfare and happiness of the family (scale A) and much more compatibility between the welfare of society and the personal influence of business magnates (scale F). With regard to Scale A, a comparison of the student results (see table 1 of appendix I) to those of large (see table 4.25) and small firms (see table 9.5) reveals that the median mean student scores are respectively 7.25 and 7.2 for English Canadian and French Canadian students. In large firms, the medians are 7.3 and 7.0 for English and French Canadian managers in that order, while for small firm managers, the English Canadian mean is 7.6 and that of French Canadian managers is 7.0. It appears then that, on the whole, French Canadian students perceive more compatibility between organizational goals and family welfare than do French Canadian managers, while English Canadian students are at the same level as large firm English Canadian managers. In this regard, it is interesting to note in examining the distributions of means shown in Table 1 of Appendix I that for both ethnic groups, final year students tend to perceive less compatibility

than first year students. As students become increasingly aware of the demands that industry will place upon them, they tend to perceive more conflict with regard to family welfare.

A similar comparison of results for Scale F (see tables 4.30, 9.5 and 11 of appendix I) reveals that the student medians (of mean differences) are 5.8 and 5.4 respectively for English and French Canadian groups. The large company medians are 6.3 and 5.6 for English and French Canadian managers and in small firms, the English Canadian mean is 6.6 while that of French Canadian managers is 6.0. As one would normally expect, students of both cultures have a more negative image of big industrialists than do their seniors in management.

Turning to the Leadership Scales, the trends of differences shown in Table 11 clearly indicate that the cultural differences identified in the management studies still persist at the student level. With regard to the scale of Component I of the leadership model (scales H, H1 and I), it can be seen that in all eleven comparisons, French Canadian students reveal themselves to be more theory X-oriented as well as more status-oriented than their English Canadian counterparts. The trend is almost as significant for Scale H1 where eight French Canadian groups are more negative in their perceptions of a subordinate's loyalty to his superior. An examination of these differences (see tables 1, 3 and 5 of appendix J) reveals that the median difference of mean differences is .8 for Scale H, .3 for Scale H1 and .6 for Scale I. Thus, not only are the trends significant but the magnitude of differences

for Scales H and I are also quite large. These findings are similar to those found in the two management studies.

Regarding the scales of Component II, the trends of differences are clear-cut. While French Canadian students, as an ethnic group, are definitely more preoccupied with the immediate demands for output (scale J), English Canadian students are more concerned about creating a productive work climate, one in which people are motivated to give their very best (scale K). Again, the differences are fairly large (see tables 7 and 9 of appendix J), the median mean difference being .3 for Scale J and .5 for Scale K. These results are similar to those of large organizations for both scales as well as small firms for Scale K.

In terms of the Consideration of Others dimension, the difference trends are also highly significant. While English Canadian students show much more consideration of others than do French Canadian students in the sense of being more sensitive and sympathetic to subordinates' needs at work (scale L in which the median mean difference is .7), French Canadian students, on the other hand, endorse to a significantly greater extent the notion of having good human relations principles (scale M in which the median mean difference is .4). In this context, it is interesting to note that the higher endorsement of human relations principles on the part of French Canadian students is not, per se, the result of their religious affiliation (see table 13, appendix J). Indeed, the two English Canadian Catholic means are the same as those of English Canadian Non-Catholic students, and all seven French Canadian means are superior to both of them.

It is also interesting to point out that, in both management studies, the differences between the two cultures were, for all practical purposes, insignificant. Both of the groups highly valued these principles. Why, then, such a large difference between the two student ethnic groups? First of all, it is apparent that English Canadian students value these principles less than do their ethnic seniors while, for French Canadians, the level of endorsement is about the same when comparing students to managers (see tables 9.6 and 5.6). Secondly, the six English Canadian group means are strikingly similar, being 8.1, 8.1, 8.4, 8.1, 8.0 and 8.1 respectively, thereby indicating that it is a fairly consistent attitude from one school and year level to the next.

It is the opinion of the researchers that this difference is a truly culture-based one that is masked once the two ethnic groups have become acclimatized to the industrial milieu because, as an ethnic group, English Canadians, once they become managers, learn to internalize these principles to a greater extent than do French Canadian managers. That is, if one can conceive the English Canadian culture as being more pragmatic than idealistic, and the French Canadian culture as being just the opposite, then it would be reasonable to suppose that these principles are not as highly valued, per se, by the English Canadian culture as they are by the French Canadian culture, as reflected by the attitudes of students. Once in the industrial world, however, the English Canadian learns to value these principles more highly through experience. Hence, the ethnic differences at that level are masked. They are masked in the sense that,

at the management level, though both ethnic groups, from a quantitative standpoint, equally value these principles, the fact remains that, from a qualitative standpoint, they do not highly value them for the same reasons.

With regard to the scales of Component III (scales N and O), the trends of differences are significant in the direction of English Canadian students being more inclined to involve subordinates in the decision-making process of industry (scale N) and much less inclined to exercise close surveillance over the work of others (scale O). The large differences between the two ethnic groups (the median mean difference is .9 for scale N and .8 for scale O) are similar to those found in both management studies and generally confirm the very different orientation each of these two management cultures tends to take in the exercise of its functions involving the work of subordinates. For Scale O, it was brought out in the small firm study that the French and English Canadian means did not differ significantly from those of their counterparts in large organizations. The French and English Canadian small firm means do not differ from those of their ethnic counterparts in the student study either. In Table 9.6, it can be seen that the French Canadian mean is 5.0 and the English Canadian mean, 5.6. The median French Canadian mean is also 5.0 while that of the English Canadian students is 5.65. Thus, the purported amount of supervisory control needed to be an efficient manager is identical for students and managers of large and small firms in each of these two ethnic groups. With regard to supervisory control, then, the cultural differences are indeed stable and these attitudes are presumably very ingrained in the minds of individuals.

In short, the research findings for the Goal Conflict and Leadership Scales generally verify the marked cultural differences found to exist between these two ethnic groups at the management level of both large and small firms. The usually wide disparity in viewpoint held by French and English Canadian business students regarding the leadership process, as well as their role in industry, leads us to believe that the problems of today will essentially be the problems of tomorrow in terms of effectively integrating or moulding members of both cultures into an efficient and well-coordinated management team.

Work Motivation

Before examining the results, it should be pointed out that the instructions in the Student Questionnaire were slightly different from those in the Manager Questionnaire since students are obviously not employed. It will be remembered that in the Manager Questionnaire, the key question was:

"IF MY JOB COULD BE CHANGED IN ONLY ONE OF THESE TWO WAYS, WHICH CHANGE WOULD I PREFER?

Receive a better salary ____ or ____ Have shorter working hours."

In the student population, this question was adapted as follows:

Imagine that you have to choose one of two jobs that are offered by a company:

JOB "A" in which you have _____ JOB "B" in which you have
more opportunity for promotions. ____ or ____ shorter working hours.

"WHICH JOB WOULD I CHOOSE, JOB "A" OR JOB "B"?"

1

The reader is referred to page 2 of the brown questionnaire (the Student Questionnaire) and page 2 of the off-white questionnaire (the Manager Questionnaire).

Table 12 presents the rank orderings of mean choices of each incentive for each of the eleven student groups. The analysis of results is similar to the one conducted for Table 7 of this chapter dealing with organizational goal rankings. That is, if the rank difference between the two ethnic groups for a given incentive is a truly cultural one, one would expect to find this difference to be consistently in the same direction for each of the eleven ethnic comparisons of this study. To evaluate the significance of these rank difference trends, the summated rank difference index was computed for each goal and the goals are presented following an ordering based upon the descending magnitude of this index, as was done in Table 6.7. The sign test was utilized to determine the statistical significance of these trends. Table 13 of this chapter presents a summary¹ of these rank difference trends.

Before discussing these trends, an examination of the ranks shown in Table 12 reveals that, generally speaking, both student ethnic groups give top priority (among the top five) to Incentives C (promotions) and J (power and authority) and consider least important (among the bottom five) Motives Q (dealing with fewer people to get the work done) and K (being less exposed to criticism). Although one would normally expect students to be strongly attracted to a job with more opportunity for promotions, it is interesting to note that, contrary to the results of the two management studies, both ethnic groups consider power and authority to be of primary importance to them. In the management studies, this was true of French Canadian managers

1

The reader is referred to page 534 of Chapter VI, where the incentives are listed along with the letter used to designate each one.

Table 10.12 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations (W.M.) by English Canadian Non-Catholic Students (E.C.-N-C), English Canadian Catholic Students (E.C.-C), French Canadian Students of School A (F.C.-A) and French Canadian Students of School B (F.C.-B), at the First and Final Years of Undergraduate and Graduate Levels of Training, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for Each Comparison and Summated Rank Differences for the Eleven Possible Comparisons. (continued)

W.M.	Undergraduate - Introductory Year											
	E.C. N-C	F.C. A	R.D. (1)	E.C. N-C	F.C. B	R.D. (2)	E.C. C	F.C. A	R.D. (3)	E.C. C	F.C. B	R.D. (4)
A	3	4	1	3	7	4	3	4	1	3	7	4
D	14	6	8	14	10.5	3.5	8	6	2	8	10.5	-2.5
M	16	18	2	16	16	0	16	18	2	16	16	0
O	10	15	5	10	14	4	11	15	4	11	14	3
E	17	13	4	17	15	2	13.5	13	.5	13.5	15	-1.5
N	9	11	-2	9	8	1	17	11	6	17	8	9
T	2	2	0	2	1	1	2	2	0	2	1	1
L	15	16	1	15	17	2	12	16	4	12	17	5
S	12	12	0	12	9	3	15	12	3	15	9	6
R	8	10	2	8	10.5	2.5	9	10	1	9	10.5	1.5
B	18	17	-1	18	18	0	18	17	-1	18	18	0
K	20	19	1	20	20	0	20	19	1	20	20	0
J	4	3	1	4	3	1	4.5	3	1.5	4.5	3	1.5
Q	19	20	1	19	19	0	19	20	1	19	19	0
I	6	7	-1	6	4	2	10	7	3	10	4	6
F	7	8	-1	7	6	1	7	8	-1	7	6	1
H	13	9	4	13	12.5	.5	6	9	-3	6	12.5	-6.5
G	5	5	0	5	5	0	4.5	5	-.5	4.5	5	-.5
C	1	1	0	1	2	1	1	1	0	1	2	1
P	11	14	3	11	12.5	1.5	13.5	14	.5	13.5	12.5	-1

Table 10.12 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations (W.M.) by English Canadian Non-Catholic Students (E.C.-N-C), English Canadian Catholic Students (E.C.-C), French Canadian Students of School A (F.C.-A) and French Canadian Students of School B (F.C.-B), at the First and Final Years of Undergraduate and Graduate Levels of Training, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for Each Comparison and Summated Rank Differences for the Eleven Possible Comparisons (continued).

W.M.	Undergraduate Level - Final Year											
	E.C. N-C	F.C. A	R.D. (5)	E.C. N-C	F.C. B	R.D. (6)	E.C. C	F.C. A	R.D. (7)	E.C. C	F.C. B	R.D. (8)
A	3.5	9	5.5	3.5	8	4.5	3	9	6	3	8	5
D	16	15	1	16	11	5	11	15	-4	11	11	0
M	13	18	5	13	17	4	16	18	2	16	17	1
O	10	12	2	10	12	2	10	12	2	10	12	2
E	20	16	4	20	16	4	17	16	1	17	16	1
N	8	6	2	8	6.5	1.5	9	6	3	9	6.5	2.5
T	3.5	2	1.5	3.5	1	2.5	2	2	0	2	1	1
L	14	13.5	-.5	14	15	1	13	13.5	.5	13	15	2
S	11	8	3	11	10	1	12	8	4	12	10	2
R	7	10	3	7	9	2	7	10	3	7	9	2
B	18	19	1	18	20	2	18	19	1	18	20	2
K	18	17	1	18	18	0	20	17	3	20	18	2
J	5	3	2	5	3	2	5	3	2	5	3	2
Q	18	20	2	18	19	1	19	20	1	19	19	0
I	2	4	-2	2	4	-2	8	4	4	8	4	4
F	9	7	2	9	6.5	2.5	4	7	-3	4	6.5	-2.5
H	15	13.5	1.5	15	13	2	14	13.5	.5	14	13	1
G	6	5	1	6	5	1	6	5	1	6	5	1
C	1	1	0	1	2	1	1	1	0	1	2	1
P	12	11	-1	12	14	2	15	11	-4	15	14	-1

Table 10.12 - Priority Rankings of Twenty Work Motivations (W.M.) by English Canadian Non-Catholic Students (E.C.-N-C), English Canadian Catholic Students (E.C.-C), French Canadian Students of School A (F.C.-A) and French Canadian Students of School B (F.C.-B), at the First and Final Years of Undergraduate and Graduate Levels of Training, Showing Rank Differences (R.D.) for Each Comparison and Summated Rank Differences for the Eleven Possible Comparisons (concluded).

W.M.	Graduate Level									Summated Rank Difference ¹
	First Year			Final Year			Final Year			
	E.C. N-C	F.C. A	R.D. (9)	E.C. N-C	F.C. A	R.D. (10)	E.C. N-C	F.C. B	R.D. (11)	
A	5	5	0	3	8	5	3	9	6	42 *
D	17.5	10	7.5	17	13	4	17	13	4	28.5*
M	15	16	1	13	18	5	13	17	4	26 *
O	11	11	0	11	12	1	11	11	0	25 *
E	16	17	-1	20	17	3	20	16	4	21 *
N	9	8	1	5	6	-1	5	8	-3	20 *
T	3	2	1	7	3	4	7	1.5	5.5	17.5*
L	13	15	2	15	15	0	15	15	0	17 *
S	10	12	-2	8	10	-2	8	10	-2	16
R	8	9	1	9	9	0	9	6.5	-2.5	15.5*
B	19	19	0	14	19	5	14	19.5	5.5	14.5
K	20	18	2	19	16	3	19	18	1	14 *
J	4	3.5	.5	4	4	0	4	5	-1	12.5*
Q	17.5	20	2.5	18	20	2	18	19.5	1.5	12 *
I	2	3.5	-1.5	2	2	0	2	3	-1	11.5
F	7	6	1	10	7	3	10	6.5	3.5	6.5
H	14	14	0	16	14	2	16	12	4	6 *
G	6	7	-1	6	5	1	6	4	2	5
C	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1.5	.5	4.5*
P	12	13	1	12	11	-1	12	14	2	2

¹ This index is an algebraic sum of the rank difference (R.D.) columns 1 to 11. Since it is a trend index, all reversals to the major trend are given a minus sign (-). * Indicates a significant trend of differences beyond the .10 level of significance.

only. Nevertheless, even in the student population, as seen by the trend results of Table 13 and the moderately high summated rank difference index, French Canadian students are significantly more motivated by this incentive than are English Canadian students. Power and authority, then, constitute important differential characteristics between the two cultures. In the opinion of the researchers, the fact that of this incentive is prevalent among English Canadian business students is not surprising if one accepts the notion that the underlying dynamics of this need, when it is a potent one in an individual, is the basic insecurity or anxiety level of that individual stemming from fairly pronounced fears of inadequacy, fears which should normally diminish over time, as one acquires experience in the business world.

Again, despite the fact that both student ethnic groups consider Incentive Q to be of minor importance to them, as was the case in both management studies, English Canadian students are somewhat more preoccupied with this motive than are French Canadian students. Thus, to deal with fewer people on the job is another incentive which seems to differentiate consistently between members of both cultures. The French and English Canadian students' equal lack of concern for Motive K (being less exposed to criticism) is also consistent with the results of the management studies.

As seen in Table 12, by far the largest discrepancy between the two ethnic groups occurs with regard to Statement A. This statement is ranked among the top five by all eleven English Canadian groups. In

Table 10.13 - Listing of Twenty Work Motivations, Showing for Each the Number of Times the English Canadian Students Give a Higher Priority Rank than French Canadian Students do ($EC > FC$), the Number of Times the Priority Rank Is Equal ($EC = FC$) and the Number of Times French Canadian Students Give a Higher Priority Rank than do English Canadian Students ($FC > EC$).

Motivations	$EC > FC$	$EC = FC$	$FC > EC$
A*	10	1	0
B	6	3	2
C*	5	6	0
D*	2	1	8
E*	2	0	9
F	4	0	7
G	3	2	6
H*	2	1	8
I	5	1	5
J*	1	1	9
K*	0	3	8
L*	8	2	1
M*	9	2	0
N	3	0	8
O*	9	2	0
P	6	0	5
Q*	8	3	0
R*	9	1	1
S	3	1	7
T*	0	3	8

* Indicates a statistically significant trend (sign test).

contrast, only three French Canadian groups consider salary to be of primary importance to them. The summary rank difference index is 42. In both large and small firms, it was also found that English Canadian managers were more attracted to salary than French Canadian managers although in large organizations, French Canadian managers tended to rank the statement among the top first five as well (see tables 6.7 and 9.7). This finding is also, of course, consistent with the differences found to exist between the two groups in their attitudes toward money (scale G) and in the relative importance each group attaches to the profit goal of business enterprises. Again, in the opinion of the researchers, this cultural discrepancy is more the result of deep-rooted guilt feelings toward money on the part of French Canadian students (see footnote page 10 of chapter I), than a lack of desire of material gain.

Turning to Table 13, Statements D (job tenure), E (definite, regular hours), N (devote all energies to work), H (social security), and P (job specialization) refer to incentives that French Canadian students are striving to obtain to a significantly greater extent than are English Canadian students. The two greatest discrepancies occur in relation to Statements D (index of 28.5 shown in table 12) and E (index of 21, shown in the same table), two incentives that are part of the security needs systems. While the results of Statement D are highly consistent with those of the large and small organization studies, thereby confirming the existence of a strong cultural difference on this matter, the Statement E trend of differences appears here for the first

time. This result, in fact, is somewhat contradictory with that of Statement N (index of 20), a trend which indicates that, up to a point, a French Canadian student, more than an English Canadian student, is looking for a job in which he can devote all his energies and resources. Yet he also wishes to have more regular working hours. It would appear then that, up to a point at least, this apparently stronger need to devote oneself to one's career on the part of French Canadian students is hollow and simply reflects the pattern previously described whereby, for a certain time, the French Canadian is willing to "sacrifice" his family life in order to become a good breadwinner (see scales A, B and C of Family Conflict found on pages 243 to 282 of chapter IV).

Statement T again serves to differentiate between the two ethnic groups. In fact, with one exception (a rank of 3), French Canadian students rank this incentive first or second in priority, thereby indicating the important cultural impact the notion of personal competence through specialization has on individuals. Our interpretation of personal insecurity being related to this need, as stated in Chapter IX (page 718) is reinforced by the fact that, as was the case with statement J, English Canadian students express a much stronger need for specialization than do their seniors in management positions (see tables 6.7 and 9.7). Statement H (index of 6) serves to bring out more clearly the strong Security Need of French Canadians for work in industry, an incentive which does not differentiate between the two ethnic groups in management, undoubtedly because this particular need is fulfilled in the actual work situation.

Statements L (fewer tensions and troubles), M (pleasant physical surroundings), O (friendships at work) and R (being appreciated as a person), on the other hand, refer to incentives that English Canadian students are significantly more attracted to, than are French Canadian students. Of these four, Statements M and O have the largest summated rank difference indices, 26 for M and 25 for O. The results of Tables 6.7 and 9.7 indicate a trend in the same direction in both small and large firms with regard to Statement M. It must therefore be concluded that a cultural difference does exist regarding this incentive, although the discrepancy is more apparent and significant at the student level than in industry. English Canadians have a stronger need for "attractive and physical work surroundings" than do French Canadians. It is interesting to note in this context that in industry, English Canadians have a much stronger need for efficient work equipment (statement P) than do French Canadians. This is not the case in the student population. Both student groups placed this need among the bottom ten. Thus in industry, the more pronounced work orientation of English Canadians is reflected by a Self-Actualization Need. In business schools, it is reflected by a Self-Esteem Need. Regarding the three other statements, the researchers cannot, at this time offer any meaningful interpretation. The differences here are specific to the student population and could very well reflect a basic difference in teaching climate between French and English Canadian business schools, an area which we are not sufficiently familiar with.

In concluding this study of students enrolled in business schools, it is apparent that the large differences in outlook each of the two major ethnic groups of managers and Canadian industry presently have with respect to Organizational Goals, the Management of People and Work Motivation extend while beyond this generation of business managers. The business leaders of tomorrow will, for all practical purposes, be faced with the same problems of mutual rapport within the context of a bicultural setting that have been identified and fully described throughout the various chapters of this report. It would be superfluous to repeat what has already been outlined and suggested as possible solutions to these problems. Suffice it to say, that the results of the business schools study strongly suggest that if Canadian industry is to progress along bicultural lines, the onus is on both French and English Canadians alike. French Canadians must closely examine and assess how certain of their present managerial values can hinder their own personal efforts to actively participate in the economic growth of this country. English Canadians, on the other hand, must become aware of and understand that French Canadians in industry have problems of adaptation to industry's modus vivandi which are different from their own. If both groups are willing to do this, solutions will come. If not, it is our firm belief that the end result in years to come will simply be a perpetuation of the present existence of two management solitudes.

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